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ABSTRACT

These proceedings contain 19 papers and 3 symposia from a research conference on adult and continuing education. Topics of the presentations are staff development needs of Indiana adult basic and secondary instructional staff, the advocate counseling model as a teaching tool for self-advocacy, needs assessment of three age groups of adult learners, institutional inhibitors to school administrator and teacher professionalism, middle-aged attitudes toward older persons and attitude change, the relationship between preservice teacher education and directed teaching performance, program promotion information needs of prospective participants in continuing professional education, continuing learning among nurses, a model for the use of scientific information in solving problems of educational practice, adults' pace through college, second language learning, staff training in competency-based adult education, impacts of long range planning for community development education, inservice education evaluation, characteristics and problems of adult higher education students, events that trigger adults' college enrollment, Texas alcoholism education programs, implications of evaluability for improving adult education programs, and prevocational education of the incarcerated mentally ill. The symposia focus on organizing continuing professional education, adult learning disability, and continuing education for health educators. (YLB)

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October 8-9, 1982
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In addition to the presentors, I also wish to thank the members of the Conference Planning Committee, Ron Cevero, D. Merrill Ewert and Doe Hentschel and especially Sue Orem who, with the assistance of the staff of the College of Continuing Education at Northern Illinois University, coordinated the Conference.

These are the people who made the Conference and this publication possible.

Ken Czisny
Editor and Planning
Committee Member

October, 1982

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STAFF DEVELOPMENT NEEDS OF ADULT BASIC AND SECONDARY INSTRUCTIONAL STAFF

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Staff Development Needs of Adult Basic and Secondary Instructional Staff

Introduction

Most adult education teachers have not had the benefit of specialized training for teaching adults. In Indiana, certification specific to the areas of adult basic and secondary education has not been developed; however, teachers in adult education in the public schools in Indiana must hold valid teaching licenses. Universities in Indiana offer limited coursework in the training of adult education teachers. Newly hired teachers in this field have had little opportunity for training in the learner characteristics, materials, and competencies unique to adult education. It can not be assumed that the principles and techniques for teaching children are directly and easily transferred to the teaching of adults. Because adult education deals with a different kind of student in a different kind of educational setting and because the effectiveness of adult education hinges directly upon the teachers' awareness of and ability to address the needs specific to adult learners, therefore, adult education outcomes may be influenced by the opportunity for teacher training.

The lack of knowledge of the educational background and preparedness of adult education instruction staff for their task tends to impede the planning for appropriate staff development activities; therefore, the Indiana Department of Public Instruction conducted a statewide assessment of staff development needs of the adult education instructional staff funded through the Department's Division of Adult and Community Education.

For the purposes of this study, "adult education" refers to services or instruction below the college level for adults who lack sufficient mastery of basic educational skills to enable them to function effectively in society or who do not have a certificate of graduation from a school providing secondary education and who have not achieved an equivalent level of education. The term "adult secondary education" (ASE) refers to instruction in high school subjects to earn credits required to achieve a high school diploma. "Adult basic education" (ABE) refers to non-credit instruction in basic education up to the level of skills necessary to passing the Tests of General Educational Development (GED).

Review of Related Research

One approach to determining needs has been to identify competencies needed by adult education instructional staff. The degree to which teachers possess the competencies constitutes their level of effectiveness. Several lists of competencies have been identified, most notably: Mocker (1974); Niemi and Davison (1971); and Mattran (1977). The self-perceived needs of teachers in the area of reading instruction were generated in a New York State Education Department workshop (1973). The University of Northern Iowa (1973) held a similar workshop which included input from administrators, teachers and students.

An additional indication of needs of adult education instructional staff can be drawn from the listings of Special Experimental Demonstration and Teacher Training Projects funded under the Adult Education Act. The listings and their descriptions published annually indicate the directions that training has taken around the country. Orientation programs which have been presented to specific populations also give an indication of the needs specific to adult education teachers. Grabowski (1976) reviewed and analyzed literature dealing with models and innovative teacher training programs. Included in his article is a priority order of statements describing ABE teacher competencies.

Purposes of the Study

Little demographic information about the populations of adult basic and secondary instructional personnel in Indiana was available. This study sought to describe these populations according to their current job responsibilities, educational background, and previous training specific to adult education. A second purpose was to examine factors such as attitudes, motivators and preferred approaches which influence the effectiveness of staff development activities. A third purpose of the study was to define desirable adult education instruction by compiling a profile of abilities and competencies. The profile, drawn from results of previous research, would be presented for validation to the populations to be surveyed. The final purpose was to assess the staff development needs in relation to the profile of desirable adult education instruction.

Research Procedures

From adult education programs around Indiana, a steering committee was called together. Members of the steering committee represented instructional staff, administrators, resource center staff, and the Division of Adult and Community Education. The steering committee determined what information to collect, which populations to include, and which procedures to use in order to mixmize the number of returns. Another major task of the steering committee was to compose a profile of desirable adult education instruction by identifying abilities and competencies.

Two questionnaires were developed. The first was designed to be completed by instructional staff in adult education programs and the campanion questionnaire was to be completed by local program administrators. Instructional staff questionnaires were sent to all teachers and paraprofessionals in Indiana's ABE programs and to a sample of Indiana's ASE teachers. An administrator questionnaire was sent to each ABE program.

Of the 618 questionnaires sent to ABE instructional staff, 407 (66%) were returned. Sixty-six (81%) of the 81 randomly selected ASE teachers returned their questionnaires and forty-nine (91%) of the 54 administrator questionnaires were returned.

Responder Characteristics

One purpose of the study was to describe the populations of instructional staff working in adult basic and secondary education in Indiana. Most respondents were teachers; 23% of the ABE questionnaires were completed by paraprofessionals. Fewer than 7% of the respondents indicate that they also had a non-teaching role in the adult education program such as administrator or recruiter. When asked to indicate the type of classes with which they work ABE instructional staff indicated adult basic education classes (80%), English as a Second Language (36%) and GED (64%). The percentages demonstrate that many respondents worked in more than one type of class. ASE teachers worked primarily in secondary credit classes (96%).

More respondents worked part-time in adult education. ABE instructional staff worked longer hours than ASE teachers and fewer had outside jobs. ABE instructional staff averaged 18 hours per week and ASE averaged 7 hours. Forty-three percent of the ABE respondents worked fewer than 10 hours compared with 85% of the ASE respondents. There was a large group of ABE instructional staff who worked full-time, 31% working 30 hours or more per week. Not surprisingly, many more ASE teachers held full-time jobs outside adult education. Only 11% of ASE respondents indicated no other full-time employment compared to 63% of the ABE respondents. Teaching was most often indicated as the outside employment.

The highest level of education attained was similar for all teachers. The majority held master's degrees. Only 18 respondents indicated they held a specialist's or doctorate degree. Half of the paraprofessionals had some higher education beyond a high school diploma or GED. ABE teachers held teaching licenses in either elementary (48%) or secondary (50%) education. ASE teachers held primarily secondary licenses (96%).

ASE teachers averaged more years of experience in education and in adult education than ABE instructional staff. The average number of years of experience in education was 19 for ASE respondents and 10 for ABE respondents. The proportion was similar for experience in adult education. ASE respondents averaged 8 years in adult education and ABE respondents averaged 5 years.

Most respondents had participated in some training for their position in adult education. Only 12% of all the respondents indicated they had had no training. Many respondents marked several types of training. Local inservice and college course work were the most often marked. Two additional types, regional activities within the state and activities sponsored by state agency, were each noted by nearly half of ABE instructional staff.

Results

Factors which influence the effectiveness of staff development activities were examined. Respondents were asked to select an answer on a score from 1 to 5. A mean score of 3.0 or more on an item was considered a significantly positive response.

Instructional staff were asked to rate 8 items according to how much each motivated them to participate in staff development activities. Seven items had average ratings above 3.0. When ranked from high to low ratings, the items were ranked identically for ABE and ASE respondents. From the highest to lowest, the items were: 1) the possibility of use in the classroom; 2) the desire to add to job related knowledge and skills; 3) the chance of relating to a need I have identified; 4) the opportunity for job advancement or raise in pay; 5) expenses paid; 6) the chance to be involved in planning; and 7) college credit offered. The item with an average rating below 3.0, i.e., time off the job to attend, was rated of insignificant value as a motivator.

Administrators were not asked the question on participation. Instead they were asked to rate items to the degree that each was an obstacle to providing staff development locally to instructional staff. Only two items were identified as significant obstacles -- lack of money and lack of time to organize staff development activities.

Ten staff development approaches were presented. Instructional staff and administrators were asked to rate each item according to its value as part of a staff development activity. The average ratings from ABE and ASE instructors and administrators for all items fell above the 3.0 point of significance; thus all approaches were seen as valuable. The approaches listed from highest to lowest ratings were: 1) working together with a more experienced staff member, 2) orientation of new staff; 3) information exchanges; 4) local workshops or seminars; 5) visiting other programs; 6) workshops or seminars held by others outside your local program; 7) college course work related to your job in adult education; 8) personal growth plan with independent study; 9) technical help by supervisors or state staff; and 10) state or regional conferences.

Respondents were asked to indicate the importance of each item on the profile of desirable adult education instruction. All twenty-six items on the profile had ratings well above 3.0. Differences in the ratings by the different populations, ABE instructional staff, ASE teachers, and program administrators, were negligible.

The instructional staff were asked to indicate the need for additional training or information relating to each item on the profile. In all, 15 of the 26 items were rated as areas of significant need. There was a great deal of overlap of items identified by the three populations. Table 1 lists the profile items and indicates the ranking of the need identified for additional training or knowledge.

Conclusions

1. The prime motivators for staff development participation were related to job responsibilities and immediate use rather than to such tangible rewards as college credit or paid expenses.
2. Peer interaction among instructional staff both within the local programs and through visiting other programs was seen as more valuable than other staff development approaches such as workshops, courses and conferences.
3. The strong support for all items on the profile of desirable adult education instruction confirmed the diversity of the role of the adult educator.
4. Although there were differences in the demographic characteristics of ABE and ASE personnel, the perceptions of competencies and staff development needs were very similar. This evidence suggests that ABE and ASE instructional staff might benefit from participation in some types of activities together. Arranging for mutually acceptable times could prove to be difficult due to the fact that ASE teachers worked in adult education fewer hours and a higher percentage held other jobs.
5. In Indiana, administrators have a great deal of the responsibility for planning and providing staff development for their programs' personnel. The ABE administrators' perceptions of the needs of their instructional staff for additional training or knowledge were very close to the needs identified by their teachers and paraprofessionals. This would suggest that the responsibility is well placed and that administrators are generally aware of staff development needs.
6. Several of the staff development needs which were rated most highly dealt with the unique needs of individual adult students, specifically, assessment of level of ability, recognizing learning problems, selecting appropriate materials, and adjusting to meet changing needs. These results suggest that a vital portion of an orientation or other staff development activity be devoted to adult learners and their specific needs.

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TABLE 1

PROFILE OF DESIRABLE ADULT EDUCATION INSTRUCTION
AND NEEDS IDENTIFIED FOR ADDITIONAL TRAINING OR KNOWLEDGE

	ABE Staff Rank	ABE Staff Mean	ABE Admin. Rank	ABE Admin. Mean	ASE Staff Rank	ASE Staff Mean
Use appropriate materials and methods for specific learning problems.	1	3.6	1	3.5	4	3.2
Recognize physical and emotional problems that may hinder students' learning.	2	3.4	2	3.3	1	3.3
Be creative in using materials and techniques.	3	3.3	4	3.1	3	3.3
Understand national and state goals and services of adult education.	4	3.2	13	2.9	7	3.1
Maintain student interest in classroom activities.	5	3.2	6	3.1	7	3.1
Select curricula which are geared to adults.	6	3.2	19	2.7	1	3.3
Provide curricula which meet the students' personal interests.	7	3.2	9	3.0	16	2.9
Adjust the program to meet the changing needs of students.	8	3.1	3	3.2	5	3.2
Place students at the best level for learning.	9	3.1	13	2.9	6	3.1
Assist students in learning to solve social, economic , and domestic problems.	10	3.1	7	3.1	20	2.7
Integrate the use of individualized and group work.	11	3.1	5	3.1	15	2.9
Determine the students' level of ability.	12	3.0	12	2.9	12	3.0
Help students accept responsibility for learning.	13	3.0	8	3.1	9	3.1
Use community resources in the classroom.	14	2.9	11	3.0	14	2.9
Demonstrate knowledge of topics and concepts of each subject taught.	15	2.9	18	2.7	18	2.8
Identify students' interests and goals.	16	2.9	10	3.0	11	3.1
Present material in appropriate sequence.	17	2.9	21	2.6	17	2.8
Take personal initiative to grow in job related skills.	18	2.9	16	2.6	13	3.0
Coordinate and supervise classroom activities.	19	2.8	17	2.8	21	2.7
Maintain good public relations with community institutions, agencies, and concerned individuals	20	2.7	15	2.9	22	2.6
Demonstrate a positive attitude toward lifelong learning, helping students to do the some.	21	2.7	24	2.4	18	2.8
Establish a classroom environment geared to adult learning.	22	2.7	20	2.7	9	3.1
Keep students informed of their progress.	23	2.5	21	2.6	25	2.2
Maintain cooperative staff relationships.	24	2.4	26	2.3	24	2.2
Interact with students in an approachable, tactful friendly manner.	25	2.4	25	2.3	23	2.5
Keep attendance and progress records for each student.	26	2.4	23	2.5	26	1.9

TEACHING/COUNSELING PEOPLE TO USE THE LAW: SOME PRELIMINARY DATA ON THE ADVOCATE COUNSELING MODEL

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Teaching/Counseling People To Use The Law: Some Preliminary Data On The Advocate Counseling Model

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In recent years several authors have focused on the need to provide public citizens access to the law for problem solving institutional difficulties. Chan (1979, 1980a, 1980b), Chan et al. (1976), Brophy et al. (1976a, 1976b, 1979), Nader (1980), and The Final Report of the Study Group on Law-Related Education (1979) exemplify the field of growing literature concerned with ways of providing citizens approaches to deal with everyday problems requiring basic legal knowledge. The Law-Related Education Act of 1978, enacted as Part G of Title III of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, is a modern day attempt to close the gap between those who are knowledgeable about the law and the average citizen. Law-related education is basically, "education to equip nonlawyers with knowledge and skills pertaining to the law, the legal process, and the legal system and the fundamental principles and values on which these are based (Federal Register, Sept. 22, 1980)." The purpose of this paper is to present the advocate counseling model as a classroom teaching tool and to present some information and data related to the model's efficacy.

Much of the conceptual framework of this approach has been described in Chan (1979). The advocate counseling model is an integrative approach combining the elements of therapeutic counseling and legal research in order to teach and guide individuals to affirmatively and assertively problem solve for themselves when confronted with institutional difficulties. Therapeutic counseling is seen as essential in order to deal with the individual's feelings and value changes as a result of the institutional problems. The model has been applied to a variety of client problem situations, relating to consumers in general (product, service, repair), benefits, claims and aid difficulties, employer-employee, credit, payment record/information problems, dwelling, military, selective service, veterans, pardons, among others. In addition, the model has been applied to various groups, Blacks, Hispanics, elderly, ex-offenders, and the disabled. Case studies about the application of the model with clients encountering racism and sexism with institutions have been collected.

Methodology

Training Content.--The advocate counseling model has been taught as a course since 1974 in the Department of Educational Psychology. It is a required beginning graduate course for all future counselors (school, community, and rehabilitation) and provides participants with theoretical and practical experiences in the use of the model as well as other advocacy methods. Participants in the course perform two lengthy exercises: 1) a legal research exercise, and 2) an institutional problem solving project.

The overall purpose of the first exercise is to provide the participants with a basic overview of the law, how it is organized, updated, and accessed. All of these activities are performed in a facility called

the Information Resource Center which houses the basic federal/state/local statutes, rules and regulations, digests, and case law, as well as other secondary source materials. The legal research exercise consists of the following activities: a) defining common legal terms and abbreviations; b) accessing, reading, and summarizing federal/state/local statutes, rules and regulations, and case law; c) tracing the origin and development of particular statutes and related regulations; and d) knowing how to use secondary source reference materials (Corpus Juris Secundum, Words & Phrases, law reporters, etc.). Through this exercise participants become familiar with particular statutes, regulations and case law which may related to their interest or unresolved institutional problem. Participants are exposed to such legal topics as landlord/tenant issues, worker's compensation, crime victim compensation, car repairs, warranties, consumer claims, record accessibility, housing construction and accessibility, affirmative action, mental patient rights, rights when arrested, sexual assaults.

The second exercise is an attempt to provide participants with direct experiences in self-advocacy. Participants to asked to select a real unresolved institutional problem and attempt to use the principles of the advocate counseling model to resolve the problem in the course. Guidelines are provided as to the selection of the problem, the generation of solution alternatives, and the implementation of advocate counseling procedures to resolve the problem. Paramount throughout the entire instructional phase is the emphasis on teaching participants to resolve institutional problems in the least escalative, non-adversarial manner possible. Specifically, this means trying to change participants' attitudes from being negative and anti-institution to being positive, pro-solution, and pro-institution.

The model teaches participants, via the written medium, to begin educating the person in the institution who caused the problem, rather than immediately referring the problem to that person's superior. If resolutions cannot be found at lower levels, then the participant is encouraged to bring the problem and the now established record to higher levels in the institution. Throughout the entire process, learners are taught how to document and create a chronological file of all institution-individual incidents. Participants are taught how to 1) do a write-up of any and all contacts with the problem institution -- citing time, date, place of incidents, statements and quotations made, -- and having the write-up notarized, and 2) make a written request from the problem institution -- constructing a letter to the institution, describing the problem, presenting the facts and appropriate documentation, and making a request, all in an affirmative format.

In addition to the above procedures, participants conduct legal research related to their institutional problem, examining the relevant statutes, regulations, and case law pertaining to their problem. This research enables the learner to a) look at the discrepancies between the current behaviors of the institution and the intent of the law, and b) look at precedents and outcomes of cases related their problem. The principles of therapeutic counseling prevail. The instructor provides individual counseling for each learner via a warm, accepting atmosphere for problem exploration and clarification, guidance for goal setting and alternatives generation, and implementation. Roleplaying/role rehearsal, assertive training, confrontation, and other counseling techniques for participant implementation and accompanying value changes are employed. At no time in the entire process

does the instructor advise the participant as an attorney might do.

Design and Procedures.--The design called for 1) the teaching and implementation of the advocate counseling model to the Spring 1980 and Fall 1981 graduate counseling classes (2 experimental groups) and 2) the assessment of student changes as a result of the model. Participants were given the Law-Related Behavior Questionnaire (LRBQ) at the beginning of the course (week 1), at the end of the course (week 16), and 6 months after the end of the course (week 40). The LRBQ is a questionnaire which asks participants to respond to the frequency in the last 4 months in which they engaged in legal research behaviors (10 items in section A), legal behaviors on behalf of others (12 items in section B), and legal behaviors for themselves (12 items in section C). The item mean in each section of all participants' responses in a particular group was used for data analyses and comparison. An Introduction to Counseling class during Spring 1980 served as control group for comparison purposes, for these students were given the LRBQ on week 1 and week 16. These students were not exposed to the advocate counseling model, either in theory or in practice. Information as to the type of institutional problem handled by the experimental groups and the nature of their outcomes after 16 weeks were also collected. Participants in both the experimental groups and the control group consisted of beginning graduate students in the School of Education, along with some undergraduate juniors and seniors.

Results

LRBQ Findings.-- Table 1 presents the mean responses over time of the LRBQ by the Spring 1980 experimental and control groups. Consider week 1 and the mean response rates in the LRBQ sections A, B, and C of both the experimental and control groups. Results from the *t* tests indicated no significant differences between the experimental and control group on all three LRBQ sections at the start of the study. In viewing the data during week 16, *t* tests indicated significant increases for the experimental group on all three sections of the LRBQ. Participants in the 2 experimental groups reported engaging in significantly more law-related behaviors at week 16. Finally, since the control group was not given the LRBQ at week 40, comparisons were made within the experimental group, i.e., comparing the data between week 1 and week 40. *T* tests indicated that there were significant increases in sections A and C of the LRBQ from week 1 to week 40.

Table 2 presents the mean response rates over time on the LRBQ comparing the Fall 1981 experimental group and the Spring 1980 control group. In looking at data during week 1, the results indicated no significant differences between the experimental and control groups during the beginning of the study. In comparing the results during week 16, the findings indicated significant increases for the experimental group on all three sections of the LRBQ. Lastly, in comparing the week 1 and week 40 of the Fall 1981 class data, the results indicated significant gains over time on sections A and C of the LRBQ.

Institutional Problems.-- In addition to the LRBQ responses, most of the participants in the experimental groups engaged in an institutional problem solving exercise, in which they attempted to apply the principles

of advocate counseling towards some problem. Data were collected on all the participants who engaged in this exercise, namely, the type of institutional problem handled and the status of the problem at week 16 (completely resolved, partially resolved, unresolved, referred to an attorney).

In the Spring 1980 experimental group, 26 of 34 students engaged in institutional problem solving, while the remaining 8 students did legal research papers as part of their course assignment. The problems handled ranged from correcting faulty repairs and unfair or overbillings, to changing rules or collecting insurance claims. The results indicated that by week 16, 22 students (84.6%) reported their problem completely resolved, 2 students (7.7%) reported their problem being partially resolved, and 2 students (7.7%) reported their problem being unresolved. For the Fall 1981 experimental class, 17 of 25 students engaged in institutional problem solving. Their problems ranged from correcting wage assignments, support payments and defective bras, to handicapped access and auto repairs and claims. The results indicated that 14 students (82.3%) at week 16 reported their problems completely resolved, 2 students (11.7%) reported their problems partially resolved, and 1 student (5.9%) reported that her problem was unresolved.

Discussion

The findings indicate that the use of the advocate counseling model as a classroom instructional tool can be effective in teaching adults to problem solve institutional difficulties by themselves. The results from the LRBQ indicated that while no significant differences existed between the experimental and control groups at week 1, significant increases occurred in the reporting of law-related behaviors by the experimental groups by week 16. These gains were maintained up to week 40. Both the Spring 1980 and Fall 1981 experimental classes were shown to be superior in reporting law-related behaviors performed. The experimental groups reported significantly higher mean responses for engaging in legal research behaviors (section A), in performing legal behaviors for others (section B), and in performing legal behaviors for oneself (section C). Finally, the results indicated significant increases in the LRBQ when comparing the experimental groups from week 1 and week 40. Although the mean response rates of the LRBQ at week 40 were not as high as those at week 16, two of the three LRBQ sections (A and C) were shown to be significantly higher than when compared to themselves at week 1. Since the course reinforces citizen advocacy for oneself rather than advocacy on behalf of others, it is reasonable to these differences are detected in the significant increases in section C of the LRBQ across time, i.e., from week 1 (beginning of the course) to week 16 (end of the course) to week 40 (6 months after the course).

The magnitude of the mean response rates for the experimental groups during week 16 (at the end of the course) is similar to the results of the LRBQ administered to the 12 staff members of the UWM Student Legal Clinic in Spring 1980. The LRBQ mean response rates for section A is 3.70 (s = 3.98), for section B, $\bar{x}$ = 2.84 (s = 3.71) and for section C, $\bar{x}$ = 2.73 (s = 3.39). Staff members working in this setting have had a year's experience in conducting legal research and in aiding UWM students, with the aid of an

attorney, in institutional problem solving. Because of the low number of subjects in the student legal clinic group, statistical comparisons could not be made. However, one can see that participants completing the advocate counseling course (week 16 data) compare favorably to this group.

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Table 1

Mean Response Rates of Participants and Significance Levels for the Spring 1980 Experimental & Control Groups on Weeks 1, 16 & 40 for the Law-Related Behavior Questionnaire

	Week 1					Week 16				
	Sp.'80 Exptl. N = 32		Sp.'80 Contrl. N = 38		Signif. Level	Sp.'80 Exptl. N = 25		Sp.'80 Contrl. N = 28		Signif. Level
LRBQ	$\bar{x}$	s	$\bar{x}$	s		$\bar{x}$	s	$\bar{x}$	s	
A	0.23	0.85	0.57	0.77	None	2.55	3.21	0.30	0.62	.01
B	0.61	0.95	0.38	0.51	None	0.67	1.07	0.22	0.77	.05
C	0.51	1.63	0.65	0.64	None	1.69	2.77	0.45	1.06	.01

Spring '80 Exptl.

	Week 1 N=32		Week 40 N=16		Signif. Level
LRBQ	$\bar{x}$	s	$\bar{x}$	s	
A	0.23	0.85	0.90	1.25	.05
B	0.61	0.95	0.84	1.11	None
C	0.51	1.63	1.86	2.17	.01

Table 2

Mean Response Rates of Participants and Significance Levels for the Fall 1981 Experimental and Spring 1980 Control Group on Weeks 1, 16 & 40 for the Law-Related Behavior Questionnaire

	Week 1					Week 16				
	Fl.'81 Exptl. N = 37		Sp.'80 Contrl. N = 38		Signif. Level	Fl.'81 Exptl. N = 34		Sp.'80 Contrl. N = 28		Signif. Level
LRBQ	$\bar{x}$	s	$\bar{x}$	s		$\bar{x}$	s	$\bar{x}$	s	
A	0.49	1.17	0.57	0.77	None	4.29	4.00	0.30	0.62	.01
B	0.58	0.93	0.38	0.51	None	1.00	1.24	0.22	0.77	.05
C	0.45	1.22	0.65	0.64	None	2.04	2.29	0.45	1.06	.01

Fall '81 Exptl.

	Week 1 N=37		Week 40 N=16		Signif. Level
LRBQ	$\bar{x}$	s	$\bar{x}$	s	
A	0.49	1.17	1.18	1.47	.05
B	0.58	0.93	0.68	1.25	None
C	0.45	1.22	1.19	1.49	.05

ADULT LEARNER NEEDS ASSESSMENT: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THREE AGE GROUPS

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ADULT LEARNER NEEDS ASSESSMENT: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THREE AGE GROUPS

During the past two decades the number of adult students who have returned to school for advanced training or education has increased more than 30 percent throughout the United States. This increase of adult students is a relatively recent phenomenon and presents a challenge and an opportunity for decision makers in post secondary educational institutions. This upsurge of adult student enrollments has been the major change in college and university enrollments during the past decade (Jensen, 1977). A wide range of societal and economical changes have contributed to the increase in the number of adults participating in post secondary education programs. Technological changes have made old skills obsolete and as this increases it is conceivable that in the future the average adult may need to develop new skills every 10 years. Furthermore, there is an accelerated demand for trained manpower to stay abreast with the pace of knowledge (Lahti, 1977).

Many colleges and universities are developing programs and services for adult students; however, they are hampered because of a lack of information regarding the needs of this diverse population. For example it is uncommon for adult students to write a college entrance examination or take a battery of placement tests as do their younger counterparts, the traditional students; consequently, little is known about the actual needs of adult students. Historically, post secondary education institutions have operated on the assumption that they were to serve a population of students participating in education activities for the first 18 to 22 years of their lives. The needs of this younger population have been assessed and services, programs and policies of institutions have premised on the findings of these assessments.

Adults benefit from expanded educational opportunities, but proposals for developing these opportunities have not accurately assessed the needs of adult students (Praelius, 1979). Rawlins (1977), found in her study of adult students that these students perceive their needs to be unique to their stage of adulthood. These individuals have been out of school for varing numbers of years and as they enter the traditional educational institutions they bring with them a set of experiences entirely different from those of the traditional aged students. Needs of adult students are the result of a profusion of life experiences accumulated over a longer lifespan than those of traditional students. However, the adult students are expected to adapt to an educational environment in which instructional methods, administrative regulations, curricular materials, support services and attitudes are typically oriented toward the younger students (Mangano & Corrado, 1980). Educators frequently assume the adult students are motivated by the same needs and interests as traditional students. As long as educators continue to provide the same type of formalized educational structure and instruction for both groups, adult students may feel that their needs are being ignored (Praelius, 1979).

The higher education communities have traditionally developed programs and services based on the premises that college and university students were under 25 years of age, were from high schools or junior colleges and had needs compatible with established programs and services already existing at in-

stitutions (Kasworm, 1980; Rauch, 1981). As the numbers of adult students increase, institutions have become interested in redefining programs and services to meet the needs of the growing numbers of adult students (Levitz & Noel, 1980). As colleges and universities are currently active in recruitment of adult students these institutions must assess the adult students needs and motivations, and understand the differences between adult students and the traditional aged students (Wolfgang & Dowling, 1981). The needs and circumstances of every campus are different and should be recognized (Levitz & Noel, 1980). Cross (1981), emphasized the economic aspect of assessing needs of adult students and recognizing the difference in student needs and institutional needs. As adults find what they want in the credit and non-credit programs offered by colleges and universities, it is clear that in the competitive buyer's market of the 1980s, colleges and universities that place institutional needs above those of the adults they hope to attract will propably lose out.

During the past several years educators have witnessed overall declines in enrollments of traditional students in colleges and universities, and based on current demographic data, this decline is predicted to increase. Not only has there been a decline in the birthrate but also an increasing number of young adults from middle-class families are not entering college (Fields, 1978). The declining enrollments of traditional aged students has contributed directly to the financial crisis institutions of higher education are experiencing. It has been projected that this decline will continue during the next decade as the number of 18 year olds declines (Hodgkinson, 1976; Bishop & VanDyk, 1977; Beals, 1979; Levitz & Noel, 1980). A combination of events such as the financial stiuation facing higher education, the diminishing numbers of traditional students and the increasing numbers of adult students provide a current phenomenon that has multiple ramifications for the institutions of higher education throughout the country.

It behooves colleges and universities to accept the challenge created by the adult students. This is not to simply absorb the adult students into extant academic programs, but rather to re-cast the entire institutional effort to facilitate the adult students entrance to, participation in and completion of their educational programs (Mangano & Corrado, 1980). Mangano and Corrado found that there were significant differences in the needs adults felt they had and the needs faculty/staff perceived the adult students to have. This is indicative of the necessity of assessing the adult students needs prior to making decisions regarding programming for this student population.

Adult students may be attracted to the institution; but if they are to be retained, their needs must be assessed, analyzed and met. Many undergraduate adult students have had prior post secondary education experiences and they are re-entering the educational institutions as experienced adults from a consumer-oriented society. These individuals are consumers of education who place a monetary value on their education. When adults seek higher education to acquire knowledge that will assist them in adjusting to the discontinuities of their lives, they have high expectations regarding the assistance they will receive. If institutions of higher education do not meet their needs, they may drop out and seek other means of fulfilling these needs.

The primary purpose of this study was to assess and compare the needs of three groups of undergraduate students at Kansas State University. These undergraduate students were enrolled in on-campus classes during the 1980 fall semester. For purposes of this study the sample was divided into the following three sub-groups:

1) traditional aged students, 25 years of age and younger,

2) young adult students, 26 to 36 years of age, and

3) older adult students, 36 years of age and above.

The age range of the sample was from 17 years of age to over 62 years of age. The instrument used for this study was the Adult Learner Needs Assessment (ALNAS), developed by the American College Testing Program (ACT). Section three of this instrument included 69 stimulus items designed to elicit a perception of a need, whether or not the need had been met and the degree the perceived need was felt by the respondent. Section three of the instrument was sub-divided into four parts which are:

1) personal needs sub-group containing 19 items relevant to an individuals personal life skills development;

2) career needs sub-group containing 15 items relevant to an individuals career development process;

3) educational needs sub-group containing 15 items relevant to an individuals educational planning process; and

4) interpersonal needs group containing 17 items relevant to an individuals association with others.

Statistical treatments were employed on data collected from section three of the instrument. Analysis of variance procedures were used to measure the effects of respondents' age on the responses. Based on the disproportionate size of the three student groups a multiple comparison of the means was conducted using the Scheffe procedure. This technique tested any and all possible comparisons between means of groups where the analysis of variance indicated significant differences.

There were significant differences in the personal needs of older adult students and traditional aged students. Significant differences were found in the personal needs of young adult students and traditional aged students. There was no significant difference in the personal needs of older adult students and young adult students.

There were significant differences in career needs of older adult students and traditional aged students. Significant differences existed in the career needs of young adult students and traditional aged students. There were no significant differences, however, in career needs of older adult students and young adult students.

No significant differences were found in the educational needs or interpersonal needs of these three groups of students. The 69 needs items from the survey instrument were rank ordered and six of the top ten needs items

were career needs. Considering the national economic conditions of the 1980s, it is consistent that students of all ages were concerned about their personal career development.

The fact that there were no significant differences in two of the needs catagories or between all of the student groups should not be misconstrued to indicate needs do not exist nor should it be interpreted as an institutional license for neglect or disregard of students' needs. Given the enrolled status of the subjects it is not surprising to find career needs given such a high priority. A wholistic interpretation of this study was that any change in programs and services to meet the needs of the adult student groups would be beneficial to the total student population. Furthermore, there is a demonstrated need for further studies comparing and contrasting all age groups of undergraduate students. It is necessary that similarities and differences of students be recognized and understood.

Historically the mission of institutions of higher education was based on the premise that they were to provide programs that would prepare an elite pre-adult population for assuming their life's activities. Services provided by the institutions were designed to meet the needs of that student population. Formal education was considered a terminal activity for individuals entering adulthood rather than a lifelong activity of participation for the total society. General education proposals have tended to focus on past traditions and were often markably inattentive to the contemporary world (Boyer & Kapplan, 1977). Educational change is tedious and slow but if institutional response is not forthcoming, adults will seek other outlets for fulfilling their needs. Business, industry, external degree programs, and institutions designed to meet the needs of this older student population will be utilized to fulfill their educational desires.

The adult students are a challenge to post secondary educational institutions and if the educational institutions and students are to derive mutual benefit from post secondary educational programs and services, then institutions must consider the needs of all students. Colleges and universities must move in a direction of research, pre-planning and delivering to accommodate the individual needs of today's heterogenous student populations.

At this point in time it appears that the institutional planners and administrators cannot afford to maintain their posture regarding the sacred historical traditions of their institutions. Today's students represent a different generation and the higher education community is faced with a need "to break the crust of custom" and implement new innovative procedures to meet the needs of all generations within the student population (Gleazer, 1977, p.32).

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INSTITUTIONAL INHIBITORS TO SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR AND TEACHER PROFESSIONALIZATION

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INSTITUTIONAL INHIBITORS TO SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR AND TEACHER PROFESSIONALIZATION

INTRODUCTION

Robert B. Howsam, a respected teacher educator who had in 1976 been involved with colleagues in preparing the landmark study, Educating A Profession (1), stated in a 1980 article in the Kappan,

> There is no way that a mature profession of teaching can emerge except as initial preparation is upgraded. In the meantime, school systems can do no more than make the best of a bad situation. Their ultimate hope is the profession (2).

There have been three types of proposals for reforming school education programs. One type calls for a two year professional preparation sequence that would be added onto a four year B.S. or B.A. degree program. A second type recommends a more extensive transition period from preservice to inservice through a one or two year "induction training" period. Of most concern to adult educators and the focus of this study has been with a third type of proposal dealing with the inservice education and continuing professional development.

There has been a great deal of adult education activity in education. Nationwide about 60% of all off-campus credit courses have involved teachers and administrators who need credits for certification, salary increases, advanced degrees or, hopefully, for increasing their effectiveness. A more recent move toward non-credit has now come along at the inopportune time of declining credit generation on campus. Schools are beginning to find their own training programs to be "more relevant" to their needs and are increasingly basing salaries and certification renewal on the non-credit "equivalents" to credit.

The study reported here grew out of a very practical problem facing the researcher as someone who had a responsibility to help organize a response to the changing relationship between his university and schools. A certain set of assumptions directed the research effort:

1. The quality of elementary and secondary schools is a vital public interest that demands a response by public universities.
2. The key element in quality schools is in the professionalization of their staffs.
3. Public universities need to forge new relationships with schools if they are going to meet staff professionalization and school improvement needs.

METHODS

The methodology used in this study was based upon the simple proposition that if the experience of colleges of education and state departments of education could be assembled on a national basis, new approaches could be suggested to institutions of higher education for dealing with the challenge of helping schools meet their professionalizations and staff development needs.

With support from the researcher's University, it was possible to collect data through 80 interviews with state department of education and university administrators in 47 states, through mailed questionnaires to selected education deans, and through participating in four national education conferences in 1980. State department of education people were asked to identify institutions of higher education that seemed to be exerting staff development leadership, and asked to identify factors that seemed to be related to successful institutional leadership. Institutions of higher education that were identified as exerting leadership by state departments or by colleagues in the field were asked to cite barriers to working successfully with schools, and asked to identify factors that seemed to be related to success in working with schools.

Data collection was preceded by a review of literature made while the researcher was chairing a University of Wisconsin Continuing Education Task Force as part of its Education Professions Advisory Committee (3). Much of the more recent literature was then incorporated by the researcher into the Fall, 1981 issue of the Journal of Research and Development in Education that dealt with "Coordinating Inservice Programs of Colleges of Education" (4).

FINDINGS

Findings from this study fall into two categories, (1) barriers to successful university involvement with schools, and (2) factors related to successful university involvement with schools.

Key barriers were found to be:

1. The lack of a workable concept of lifelong professional education starting with the undergraduate teacher preparation programs controlled by institutions of higher education, running through the induction training period of new teachers (now largely ignored), and continuing throughout the professional lives of teachers.
2. The funding of public institutions of higher education on the basis of student credit hours when many school/university relationships call for non-credit involvement of university faculty.

3. A poor match between "available" university faculty and the needs and interests of schools in the off-campus.
4. Faculty reward systems that place a lower priority on working with schools than on research and resident instruction.
5. Faculty skills that are highly specialized in academic areas and often considered of marginal "relevance" to the "practical," problem oriented needs of school personnel.
6. Faculty orientation to "information giving" rather than "problem solving."
7. A lack of organization for school staff development within universities to provide an adequately funded office headed by a qualified professional coordinator.

Key factors related to successful involvement of universities in working with schools were found to be:

1. Having a viable concept and viable models of collaboration between the five parties that must collaborate in order to have successful schools---schools, professional educators, school communities and their elected school boards, state departments of education, and teacher preparation institutions. Collaboration among these five parties has received attention from Howey, et.al. (5) in their benchmark studies, and this concept evolved as the key factor identified in this study. The remaining success factors outlined below are directly related to steps taken by institutions of higher education to implement viable models of collaboration.
2. University orientation toward collaboration in inservice education and professional staff development.
   a. An acceptance of equality is necessary, particularly between school teachers and higher education faculty.
   b. The recognition of the vital need for quality schools must be present.
   c. There must be a recognition of the need to collaborate among all five parties involved.
   d. There must be a concept of continuing professional development, preservice to retirement.
3. Organizational arrangements.
   a. An identifiable university unit needs to be established to provide a linkage between the university and schools. This unit needs to be headed by a professional coordinator, and seems to function best when part of the education dean's office.
   b. Coordination is required between the educational unit in the college of education and the broader continuing education office of the university.
   c. Practicing school professionals as well as college of education faculty need to be regarded as the staff development

center staff in order to foster the school/university collaboration required.

d. Particular attention must be given in providing an organizational base for induction training of newly placed teachers.

4. Administrative policies and procedures.
   a. It is essential that faculty recognition be reflected through rank, tenure and promotion types of reward in order to encourage faculty involvement in school inservice education and staff development.
   b. A system of faculty monetary incentives is necessary other than the usual overload payment incentive, to encourage faculty to work with schools.
   c. Faculty need certain skills, such as problem solving process skills, that are not normally part of their repertoire, and a faculty development program is needed to help faculty acquire these skills.
5. Funding of university efforts.
   Funding of inservice education and staff development in both universities and schools is critical, and those concerned with education at all levels need to work at obtaining funding as an important element in collaborative planning.

CONCLUSIONS

The nation's schools, and particularly its public system of elementary and secondary schools, are experiencing widespread criticism today, and the need for school improvement is recognized. A key to school improvement is professional staff development, but the current practice of continuing professional development of educational personnel is not bright.

1. In schools, with the exception of a few states, school budgets assigned to professional development average about .3%, and school personnel are expected to pursue professional development on their own time.
2. In professional organizations, the approach of the NEA and AFT and their state affiliates has become more that of traditional trade unions rather than that of professional development organizations.
3. In state departments of education more emphasis has been placed on the administration of their regulatory functions rather than upon developing the education profession.
4. In institutions of higher education the student credit hour needs drive activities rather than the needs of schools and their professional staffs.

In this less than bright national situation this study lends reinforcement to a hopeful concept---collaboration among concerned parties to promote the continuing professional development of school personnel.

Adult educators may have forgotten schools and gone on to new and more exciting areas. As Knox observed, "In contrast with the enthusiasm and optimism regarding CPE in other professional fields that were studied, those who were conducting and to some extent coordinating CPE in Schools of Education seemed weary of long effort, and in a reactive and defensive position." (6).

Some new sources of help are becoming available. Houle, in his Continuing Learning in the Professions (7) points to new approaches and new challenges for adult educators who would concern themselves with improvements in the vital professions of school teaching and administration. In 1982 Ferver brought together useful papers from the first national conference of college of education inservice coordinators (8).

The collaborative approach suggested by this study may provide an organizational concept for renewed efforts among adult educators who are concerned with the quality of our nation's schools.

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MIDDLE-AGED ATTITUDES TOWARD OLDER PERSONS AND THE CHANGING OF THESE ATTITUDES THROUGH EDUCATIONAL EXPERIENCES

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MIDDLE-AGED ATTITUDES TOWARD OLDER PERSONS AND THE CHANGING OF THESE ATTITUDES THROUGH EDUCATIONAL EXPERIENCES

PURPOSE

This study was an extension of two earlier projects (Trent, Glass, and Crockett, 1979; Glass and Trent, 1980) funded by the Andrus Foundation designed to bring about a positive change in adolescents' attitudes toward older persons through participation in educational programs. It was felt that the work of the earlier projects needed to be extended into the adult population. The central purpose of this study was to determine whether middle-aged adults' attitudes toward older persons could be changed in a positive direction through educational experiences designed specifically to change attitudes. A second purpose was to determine the extent to which certain personal and situational characteristics of middle-aged adults were associated with attitudes toward older persons and attitude change. A third major purpose was to determine if the attitudes changed through the educational experiences would persist after a time period of two or four months.

BACKGROUND AND NEED FOR THE STUDY

In general, older adults do not possess a positive image in American society. The devalued position accorded older Americans can be evidenced in societal practices and scientific literature. A review of the literature reveals that the attitudes which others have toward the elderly seem to have an impact on the treatment they receive and on the adjustment these older adults make to life (Bennett and Eckman, 1973).

In an effort to improve the quality of life for older persons, it is imperative that attention be given to altering the negative attitudes of society. A most important segment of society is the middle-aged adult population, who, in general, are most often found in positions of influence and decision-making (Knox, 1977). Mid-lifers influence the treatment of older adults, for middle-aged adults, as a rule, control the policies and programs on which many older adults find themselves dependent. Perhaps even more important is the fact that the middle-aged adults are the normbearers of society, and they are the ones who have a great impact on the formation of the attitudes of the young. It is generally accepted that middle age is that time of life when an individual comes face to face with his or her own aging (McKenzie, 1979). The literature suggests that, as a group, middle-aged adults hold negative attitudes toward older persons (Sadowski, 1978). All of the above factors point out the crucialness of helping middle-aged adults to gain positive attitudes toward older persons and toward aging itself. This study was one effort in that direction.

RESEARCH PROCEDURES

The population for this study consisted of middle-aged volunteer learners in North Carolina. North Carolina was divided into three geographical areas (East, Central and West). An effort was made to find educational institutions in each region who would be willing to offer a workshop on aging. Ten locations were found for the workshops -- three in the East, four in the Central region, and three in the West. These ten institutions consisted of two technical college divisions of continuing education, two four-year State university divisions of continuing education, and six Agricultural (Cooperative) Extension Service

offices. Participation in the workshops was voluntary. Control groups were secured at each location.

The researchers designed a twelve-hour workshop which offered individuals an opportunity to learn about many different aspects of the aging process and of life for older persons. The learners reflected about their own aging, in addition to looking at the aging of others. The instructional methodology included a variety of learning experiences. The researchers had individual orientation sessions with the workshop leaders well in advance of the workshop in order to acquaint them with the leader's guide and the resource materials. All of the workshops were conducted by persons other than the researchers.

The study employed the pretest→treatment→posttest→follow-up posttest research design. The experimental group participated in a series of six two-hour learning experiences on aging. The control group received no instruction but completed the pretest, posttest, and follow-up posttest. The Kogan (1961) "Old Peoples" Attitude Scale was administered to all participants before and after the experiment. A general information questionnaire and the Purpose in Life Scale (Crumbaugh, 1968) were administered to all participants before the experiment. Two to four months after the conclusion of the workshop, the Kogan O.P. Scale was mailed to both experimental and control groups as a follow-up posttest. There were 162 adults (89 in experimental group and 73 in control group) who supplied data for the pretest and posttest. Of this number, 89 participated in the follow-up posttest.

A least squares (LS) analysis (Searle, 1971) was used to test the significance of the relationship between the various dependent variables and the independent variables (sex, age, marital status, education, race, religion, family income, number of brothers and sisters, birth order, purpose in life, and various factors pertaining to the middle-aged adults' parents). A .10 level of significance was set for this study.

RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS

Based on the study of the literature, the researchers anticipated that the adults in this study would hold negative attitudes toward older persons. This expectation was not confirmed. The mean pretest attitude score for the total sample was 4.21 out of a possible 6.0, indicating a slightly positive attitude toward the aged.

It is difficult to explain these findings. It is not known for certain if the participants of this study are typical of North Carolina adults in terms of their attitudes, nor is it known if such positive attitudes are now typical of adults' attitudes in other states and regions. It may be that persons who volunteer to learn about aging and/or who participate in the institutions and organizations utilized in this study, in general, possess more positive attitudes toward older persons than do those persons who do not volunteer to study about aging or who do not participate in the types of institutions of this study. The researchers have no way of knowing. However, it may be that these attitudes are typical of middle-aged adults today. It might be possible that today's adults have more favorable attitudes toward older persons and toward aging itself. Maybe adults' attitudes toward older persons are beginning to take a positive turn, even if ever so slight, and these findings are a re-

flection of that trend. Further research must seek these answers.

There was only one variable which appeared to be significantly related to the pretest attitudes toward older persons. Those adults with higher Purpose in Life (PIL) scores held significantly more positive attitudes toward the aged than those with lower PIL scores. These findings are consistent with those found in earlier studies with adolescents (Trent, Glass, and Crockett, 1979; Glass and Trent, 1980).

The variables of sex, age, marital status, race, education, family income, religious denomination, numbers of brothers and sisters, birth order, whether or not parents are living, whether or not parents are retired, parents' adjustment to retirement, parents' living arrangement, whether or not older adults lived in home as a child, whether or not older adults are currently living in home, parents' financial dependency, parents' health, geographic region, and workshop location within region were not significantly related to attitudes toward older persons. The relationship between attitudes toward the aged and the variables of marital status (.11), race (.12) and family income (.13) approached significance, indicating that these relationships need to be examined in greater depth in future studies.

The major emphasis of the research was to determine whether middle-aged adults' attitudes toward older persons could be changed through educational experiences specifically designed to change attitudes. The data indicated that there was a difference between the workshop group and the control group at the conclusion of the learning experiences. The control group showed a decrease in attitude scores while the workshop group showed a small, but positive, increase in scores. On the basis of this analysis, one can conclude that middle-aged adults' attitudes toward the aged can be changed in a positive direction through participation in the six two-hour workshop sessions used in this study. It would appear that participation in the learning experiences, at least, contributed to a reinforcement of the adults' attitudes toward older persons, and, at best, resulted in a small positive increase in attitudes.

In attempting to determine if the changed attitudes would persist over a two- to four-month period, the researchers encountered some problems in getting these data. Due to the late start of three workshops, it was impossible to secure the follow-up posttests from these locations before the data collecting phase of this project had to be brought to a close. This situation, along with having to secure the follow-up posttests by mail, resulted in only 89 adults supplying data which were usable for this portion of the analysis. This was only 54.9 percent of the original 162 persons who supplied pretest and posttest data. This would necessitate, the researchers feel, the use of extreme caution in interpreting this latter phase of the analysis.

In the analysis of the 89 adults, it was found that the LS mean of the control group dropped -0.24 from the pretest to the posttest, while the experimental group showed only a slight decline (-0.02). Both the experimental and control groups increased their mean scores from the time of the posttest to the follow-up posttest. The experimental group showed an increase of 0.17. Based on this finding, it would appear that participation in the workshop did have a positive influence on the participants; however, the control group had

an increase of 0.30 in their LS mean score from the posttest to the follow-up posttest. Thus, the two groups were not significantly different in their attitude scores at the time of the follow-up posttest. At the conclusion of the experiment, it appears that the two groups were not different in their attitudes toward older persons.

The researchers have no indication as to how to explain this phenomenon. It may be that the findings of the group of 89 persons are not representative of the total group of 162 persons. On the other hand, the findings may be accurate for the entire sample. It may be that taking the Kogan O.P. Scale three times caused the control group (and maybe the experimental group) to increase its attitude scores. Another explanation may lie in the possibility that many of the control group members had contact in informal settings with the experimental group members. This is entirely possible in some of the workshop locations, and, as a result, the control group may have inquired of the experimental group what was occurring in the workshop sessions. As the two groups interacted, it may be that the adults in the experimental group had some influence on the control group, thus resulting in a positive change over the two- to four-month period. All of these possibilities are pure speculation. The researchers feel that, due to the small number of respondents in the follow-up posttests, one should reserve judgment on the results regarding the change which developed from the time of the posttest to the follow-up posttest.

IMPLICATIONS

This study has demonstrated the effectiveness of a particular study on aging in changing the attitudes toward older persons of a group of middle-aged adults. Though the amount of change was small, there was a slight positive increase in attitudes toward older persons. It certainly appears that participation in the learning experiences of this study, at least, contributes to a reinforcement of the existing attitudes of the adults and, seemingly, results in a small increase in attitudes. While the gains in attitudes were not as strong as the researchers would have liked, it would seem that this unit can be used with some assurance with groups of other adult learners.

The fact that the attitudes of the participants were changed over such a short period of time seems important. It must be remembered that the adults of this study spent a number of years developing their attitudes toward older persons; and, as a group, these adults had relatively positive attitudes toward older adults before the study began. Given these two factors, it is even more noteworthy that a significant change in attitudes could occur in such a short study. If attitudes can be changed, even so slightly, with such a short exposure to the area, think what might occur with more exposure spread over a longer period of time.

The enthusiasm of the last few paragraphs must be tempered by the knowledge that the analysis of the data of the 89 persons who completed all three administrations of the attitude scale did not reveal as positive results as did the analysis of the total sample. Such knowledge should cause these researchers and other adult educators to realize that the workshop learning experiences did not help a number of persons to alter their attitudes in a positive direction. It is difficult to explain why, but it may be that the

content of these workshop sessions, while appropriate for some persons, may not be appropriate for others. It may be that additional content areas and/or learning experiences may be more relevant for other adult learners.

Older adults and those who work with them should be heartened to realize that the adults of this study, as a group, did not view older persons negatively. While one cannot go so far as to say these adults are typical of all adults, these findings do present some evidence that middle-aged adults do not have a negative attitude toward older persons as past research would tend to indicate.

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AN ANALYSIS OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PRESERVICE TEACHER TRAINING AND DIRECTED TEACHING PERFORMANCE

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AN ANALYSIS OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PRESERVICE TEACHER TRAINING AND DIRECTED TEACHING PERFORMANCE

The Michigan Department of Education has mandated that teacher education institutions require three semester hours in the methods of reading for all secondary provisional and continuing certificate candidates on or after July 1, 1983. In compliance, a preservice reading course was designed and implemented winter quarter 1980 at Ferris State College in Big Rapids, Michigan.

The Problem Selected for Study

The primary purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of training student teachers of business and trade-technical education in reading methods. To accomplish this objective, the author investigated student-teacher-training effects by measuring the changes in the reading ability of their secondary-school students.

METHODOLOGY

Two ten-week experiments were conducted during the 1980-81 academic year. The pilot study took place fall quarter, and the results gave impetus to the principal investigation which was operationalized spring quarter.

The sample for the study included 18 student teachers, 299 secondary school students from one of their classes, and 18 supervising teachers. These participants taught in high schools and career centers in the Upper and Lower peninsulas of Michigan. Of the 18 teachers, nine were in the experimental group and had studied reading methods; whereas, nine served as the control and had not completed course work in reading. They comprised the total populations from the business and trade-technical education curricula, and they were seniors.

Two analyses took place. Initially, the 18 student teachers in the experimental and control groups were matched according to two variables. These variables included senior status and overall grade-point average. Secondly, of the 18 student teachers, 12 were matched according to three variables. These variables included senior status, overall grade-point average, and curricula.

When N = 18, the mean grade-point averages for the experimental and control groups were 3.08. When N = 12, the mean grade-point averages for both groups were 2.90.

During the first week of March 1981, the first week of the spring quarter, form one of Survey F of the Gates-MacGinitie standardized reading test was administered to the secondary school students as a pretest.

At the first directed teaching seminar, during the first week as well, the investigator discussed the administration of the reading test with the student teachers and gave each of them a Teacher's

Manual. Upon receiving the supervising teachers' approval, the pre-test was given to the secondary school students. Then the supervising teachers participated in a two-hour in-service training session which was conducted by the investigator. The content pertained to the nature of the research project, the design of an oral reading analysis, cloze test, informal reading inventory, directed reading activity, and the readability of instructional materials.

The investigator then conducted a series of at least five high school visitations commencing with the first week and alternate weeks thereafter. The purposes of these visits were to answer student teachers' questions about survival concerns and to see if they were implementing reading methods in their content areas. Interviews with student and supervising teachers combined with verification of the time allocated to reading activities (time on task) in lesson plans were additional sources of evidence.

During the first week of May, the tenth week of the Spring quarter, form two of Survey F of the same reading test was given to 299 secondary school students to see if improvement in reading scores had taken place.

To test the first hypothesis, 157 secondary school students in the experimental group received reading instruction, while 142 students in the control group did not. The alternate forms of the Gates-MacGinitie reading test were administered to both groups in the pretest-posttest control group design at the beginning and end of the ten-week test period to see if gains in reading scores were significant for the experimental group. To conclude the data, statistical techniques analysis of variance and the t test were applied to determine the differences among the variables.

Findings Regarding the Hypothesis

The first hypothesis is that gain scores in reading comprehension will be greater for secondary school business and trade-technical students whose student teachers have had training in methods of reading than for those students whose student teachers have not had such training. To test hypothesis one when N = 18, 299 secondary school students from 18 classes were administered form one of the Gates-MacGinitie reading test during the first week of the quarter. Twelve classes were tested in the morning, and 6 classes were tested in the afternoon. Of the 299 students, 157 were in the experimental group and received reading instruction; whereas, the 142 students in the control group did not. During the tenth week of the spring quarter, form two of the same test was given to the 299 students to determine gain scores.

To test the same hypothesis when N = 12, 192 secondary school students from 12 classes were given form one of the Gates. Eight classes were tested in the morning and four classes were tested in the afternoon. Of the 192 students, 102 were in the experimental group and received reading instruction, while 90 students in the control group did not. During the tenth week, form two of the same test was administered to the 192 students to determine gain scores.

Gain scores were derived by determining the difference between the pretest and posttest measures on the three subtests--speed and accuracy, vocabulary, and comprehension. The total change scores were then divided by the number of secondary school students who completed both tests. The t test was used to determine if a difference existed between the means for the experimental and control groups. The difference between the means for these two groups was statistically significant for the two analyses. That is, student teachers in the experimental group who had studied reading methods were able to improve the overall reading ability of their secondary school students at a statistically significant level which was less than .01. Whereas, the student teachers who served as the control and who had not studied reading were unable to improve the secondary school students' reading ability. (See Table 1)

TABLE 1
AVERAGE OVERALL READING GAIN SCORES ON THE
GATES-MACGINITIE STANDARDIZED READING TEST
BY THE SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS

N = 18 Student Teachers by Group	Sec. School Students N of Cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Stnd. Error	T Value	Degrees Freedom	2-Tail Prob.
Experimental	157	4.503	13.469	1.075			
					5.07	297	0.000
Control	142	-4.901	18.435	1.547			

Conclusions and Implications

One four-credit-hour course of study (40 hours of instruction) in reading methods in adequate pre-service training to enable student teachers to improve the reading ability of their secondary school students in the content areas of business and trade-technical education. Evidence to support this conclusion stems from findings that the secondary school students in the experimental group achieved statistically significant gains on the speed and accuracy and comprehension subtests of the Gates-MacGinitie standardized reading test. Subsequently, the overall growth in reading ability was statistically significant for the secondary school students in the experimental group. For this reason, the Michigan State Board of Education mandate requiring three semester hours in the methods of reading for all secondary provisional and continuing certificate candidates on or after July 1, 1983, is reasonable.

PROGRAM PROMOTION INFORMATION NEEDS OF PROSPECTIVE PARTICIPANTS IN CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

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PROGRAM PROMOTION INFORMATION NEEDS OF PROSPECTIVE PARTICIPANTS IN CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

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AMERICAN COUNCIL ON PHARMACEUTICAL EDUCATION

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INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

Continuing professional education emerged from the 1970's and entered the 1980's as a major area of practice in adult and continuing education (1). This growth is particularly noteworthy in the health professions of dentistry, medicine, nursing and pharmacy.

During the 1970's, in each of these four professions, a national mechanism was established to promote the availability of reliably high quality continuing professional education programs for practitioners. In dentistry, a continuing dental education sponsor approval mechanism was established by the American Dental Association (ADA). In medicine, programs were established for accrediting providers of continuing medical education programs by both the American Medical Association's Liaison Committee on Continuing Medical Education (LCCME), as well as the Accreditation Council for Continuing Medical Education (ACCME). In nursing, a program of national accreditation was established by the American Nursing Association (ANA). In pharmacy, a continuing pharmaceutical education provider approval program was developed by the American Council on Pharmaceutical Education (ACPE).

These mechanisms have typically been patterned after the basic model of professional school accreditation, focusing on the approval or accreditation of sponsors rather than full review and approval of each specific continuing professional education activity. Sponsor approval or accreditation is based upon each sponsoring organization's demonstrated compliance with a set of quality criteria or standards. Approved/accredited sponsors are responsible for planning, developing and conducting continuing professional education activities in compliance with these criteria or standards and are periodically reviewed to monitor ongoing compliance as a condition of continuation of approved/accredited status.

Quality Promotional Materials

The criteria and standards developed to guide and promote quality promotional materials for continuing professional education programs in these four professions generally point to a set of informational items which supplement the most basic information related to program title, location, and date. These requirements are generally directed at enhancing promotional literature to allow for more informal decision-making by prospective participants.

In pharmacy, all promotional materials developed by ACPE-approved providers include a statement of educational goals and objectives, a description of the intended target audience, the schedule of the activity,

the cost to the participant and the items covered by that cost, the amount of credit to be awarded, and the credentials/qualifications of the faculty (2). These specific informational items are similar to those called for by the ADA, where a description of educational delivery methods is also required (3). They are also similar to those listed by the ANA which also requires an indication of the sponsor, something which the others take for granted (4). In contrast, the LCCME only recommends that educational objectives be specified by providers accredited for awarding Category I Credit in the AMA's Physician's Recognition Award. (5)

PURPOSE AND DESIGN OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to explore the relative importance of a broad range of informational items to prospective participants' decision-making regarding selection of continuing pharmaceutical education activities. Grotelueschen's Continuing Professional Education Program Information Rating Scale (6) was selected and modified slightly in order to reflect a variety of nuances in continuing pharmaceutical education. The rating scale contained 23 informational dimensions for brochure development and requested respondents to rate on a Likert-type scale of 1-7 (1= not important, 7= very important) the importance of each item to their program selection decision-making.

The rating scale was mailed, along with a self-addressed, stamped return envelope, to a 23-state random sample of 300 licensed pharmacists. The states were selected in order to achieve a balance between states which do and do not require continuing pharmaceutical education for relicensure, rural and agricultural states, and states from all regions of the country. Also enclosed in the mailing was a Respondent Information Form which requested demographic data from each respondent. A total of 121 rating scales were returned. Of these, 11 were marked not deliverable, reducing the sample size to 289 and the total of 110 returns constituted a response rate of 37%.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Demographic Characteristics

About three-fourths (72%) of the respondents were male and about one-fourth (27%) female, with an average age of 39 years within a range of 23 to 73 years. A full half of the respondents had graduated since 1971 and one-fourth since 1975, all having received the baccalaureate in pharmacy degree. Thirteen percent (n=14) had completed a course of post-graduate study and of these 3 had completed a hospital or clinical pharmacy residency, 3 a master's degree, 3 a post-baccalaureate Pharm.D., 2 a Ph.D., and 3 had completed other courses of advanced study. About two-thirds (65%) were community practitioners and one-fifth (20%) were hospital practitioners, with the remaining 15% being employed by pharmaceutical manufacturers, pharmaceutical wholesalers, and colleges or schools of pharmacy. Slightly less than two-thirds (62%) were primarily engaged in the practice of pharmacy, while one-fifth (20%) were primarily responsible for administration. About two-

thirds (62%) were licensed in states requiring continuing education participation for relicensure. Most (83%) reported participation in continuing pharmaceutical education activities over the past 12 months, and about one-fifth reported participation in significantly more than the general requirement of 15 hours in mandatory continuing education states.

Analysis of Item Responses

Figure 1 shows the rank ordering of program information items by level of importance. All informational items identified in the quality standards and criteria for the four professions of dentistry, medicine, nursing and pharmacy were ranked in the top 14 items except the requirement in nursing that the program sponsor be named, which was ranked 20th.

Of particular interest is the top ranking of information about the relevance of content to professional practice. Analysis of variance of response on this item by selected subgroups of respondents according to practice setting, mandatory continuing education requirements, years in practice, type of practice responsibilities, hours of continuing education participation during the past year, and respondent age showed no significant difference, suggesting that this type of information was of equal importance to most respondents. This in turn suggests that information designed to address this need might be a useful addition to program promotional literature.

The relatively low importance ascribed to information about program cost is also worth noting. Analysis of variance of responses on this item by the selected subgroups identified above again showed no significant differences, emphasizing the only moderate importance placed on program cost and suggesting that decisions to participate may be based on a variety of other more important factors.

The very low importance ascribed to information regarding a program sponsor or cosponsor is also of interest. Although these items were rank ordered very low, analysis of variance indicated that pharmacists who were 40 years of age or older placed significantly more importance on this item than their younger professional peers ($F=5.56$, $df=1$, $p=.02$). Conversely, information related to social activities planned, which ranked last, was seen to be significantly more important for those pharmacists who were less than 40 years of age than those who were 40 or older ($F=4.11$, $df=1$, $p=.05$).

Two demographic characteristics of participants were sources of important and significant differences among the pharmacists' responses to selected items: years performing present duties and the respondent's age. Respondents who had been performing their present duties for 6 years or more reported that information on both background prerequisites of participants ($F=3.57$, $df=2$, $p=.032$) and difficulty level of content to be presented ($F=9.48$, $df=2$, $p=.0002$) were significantly more important than it was for respondents who had performed their present duties for only 3-5 years. Respondents who were 40 years of age or older were also found to place significantly more importance on information regarding difficulty level of content than respondents less than 40 years of age did ($F=9.52$, $df=1$, $p=.003$). These findings suggest the general importance of information regarding the complexity and difficulty of content to the older participant.

FIGURE 1.

RANK ORDER OF PROGRAM INFORMATION ITEMS
BY LEVEL OF IMPORTANCE
(n=107)

RANK	INFORMATION ABOUT THE:	MEAN	S.D.
1	Relevance of content to professional practice	6.10	1.26
2	General topic area	5.93	1.26
3	Program meeting time	5.58	1.66
4	Qualifications of the instruction/resource person(s)	5.54	1.56
5	Availability of continuing education credit	5.50	1.78
6	General method of delivery (e.g., live, home study)	5.46	1.45
7	Learner outcomes expected	5.42	1.29
8	Target audience	5.40	1.44
9	Specific learning objectives	5.34	1.43
10	Specific method of instruction (e.g., lecture, workshop, small groups, audiocassette, videotape, etc)	5.26	1.57
11	Faculty members	5.15	1.78
12	Amount of credit to be awarded	5.12	1.95
13.5	Cost of the program	4.77	1.63
13.5	Length of the program	4.77	1.60
15	Instructional materials that will be used	4.68	1.69
16	Program setting (location, city, facility, etc.)	4.67	1.98
17	Length of each session	4.52	1.67
18	Difficulty level of content to be presented	4.29	1.71
19	Background prerequisites of participants	4.19	1.81
20	Sponsor	2.64	1.72
21	Number of participants expected	2.61	1.61
22	Cosponsor	2.45	1.58
23	Social Activities Planned	1.95	1.31

Conclusions

It must be pointed out, in conclusion, that these findings address the descriptive question of how important is information on these dimensions to prospective participants in continuing pharmaceutical education. As such, they do not address the marketing question of pharmacists' preferences in these areas. Such preferences are rightfully incorporated into need assessment activities conducted by various continuing education providers. However, in addressing the question of informational needs, these findings do suggest that those agencies who are responsible for monitoring quality in continuing professional education in dentistry, medicine, nursing and pharmacy, may wish to re-examine their standards and criteria related to what is required on promotional materials in order to provide prospective participants with information which they consider to be important to selecting continuing education activities.

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CONTINUING LEARNING AMONG BRITISH AND AMERICAN NURSES: TWO CASE STUDIES

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> With a clearer understanding of both the subjective roots of his own philosophical position and the nature of the educational process, an educator may be able to interpret more adequately the meaning education has for others and thus be able to help them discern that mearning for themselves. (Chamberlin, 1974, p. 135)

The purpose of this paper is to discuss a research project conducted to determine how a group of British and American hospital nurses incorporate learning into their lives. Here, considering limitations of time and space, particular focus will center upon discussion of factors which precipitated the conduct of such an inquiry, and secondly, outlining implications of such research for the continued development of policies and practices regarding the provision of continuing learning for nurses.

Throughout much of history, the educational process has been considered an activity relevant only to youth. It has been seen as a process that, once completed, provided an individual with whatever knowledge he would need for the rest of his life. However, times have changed, and have produced what Botkin, Elmandjra & Malitza (1979, pp. 6-7) describe as the human gap: the distance between growing complexity and our capacity to cope with it.... (where) an essential difference today is that contemporary complexity is caused predominantly by human activities" rather than "from natural phenomena." As man begins to exert greater control over natural phenomena, his methods of coping with those phenomena (or learning) need to be reevaluated.

One response to this growing complexity has been the movement toward continuing professional education, a response which is inordinately linked to the underlying mainstream of American values. As Stewart (1972)states:

> While religion in the United States is committed to the doctrine that man is evil by nature, most Americans....more likely... see man as a mixture of good and evil or a creature of his environment and experience. Most important, they will stress his ability to change. (p. 61, italics added)

Directly relating this value to education, Stewart adds:

> Perhaps no people in history have believed so firmly as Americans in the ability of education to improve the individual. The belief in the perfectibility of man and in progress seems more characteristic of Americans than does the belief that man is innately evil....Man can change, improve himself, and it is his responsibility to do so. (p. 62)

And nursing has been no exception. For instance, O'Connor (1979, p.354) states that "the nursing profession has accepted the need for its members to update their knowledge and skills through participation in continuing education activities to provide the quality health care services society requires."

Educational providers, often fueled by legislative mandates for continuing professional education, have been "pathetically pleased to be wanted, to be recognized even for the wrong reason, and...have been quick to see that in the short run there may be money to be made" (Kidd, cited in Heaney, 1980). All of which adds up to "a mindless proliferation of courses and conferences" (Houle, 1980, p.x), with little or no thought to the "long run" of the matter.

In addition, the intensified preoccupation with continuing professional education programming has also influenced research efforts both in adult education and nursing. As Lofland (1971, p.13) states, social inquiry questions about a social phenomenon can usually be narrowed down in an attempt to provide answers concerning characterisitics, causes and/or consequences of that phenomenon. Although a few researchers are beginning to address the issue of consequences (or impact), the research efforts in continuing education for nurses have generally focused on descriptions of characteristics of learners and learning experiences and causes of participation.

It would appear however, that something has been missing in this headlong growth of continuing professional education programming and research. Houle (1980, p.x) might argue that the missing element is some "unifying conception of how education can be used in a mature, complex and continuing way."

During the past several decades, as people have increasingly questioned the age-old traditions of youth-oriented education, a number of alternative conceptual frameworks have been presented. Concepts such as lifelong learning (Peterson, 1974; UNESCO, 1976), anticipatory learning (Botkin et al, 1979), double-loop learning (Argyris, 1982), and continuing learning as a professionalizing process (Houle, 1980) have been proposed. Unfortunately, the only change that results is too often an introduction of new terminology within an educational system still firmly entrenched within its centuries-old legacy.

In the "adoption of innovations" literature (Rogers & Shoemaker, 1971,p.22), the authors point out that "relative advantage" or "the degree to which an innovation is perceived as better than the idea it supersedes" is only one of at least five characteristics found in successful innovations. The second characteristic: "complexity" or "the degree to which an innovation is perceived as being consistent with the existing values, past experiences, and needs of the receivers" appeared to be a crucial next step to attain. For Rogers & Shoemaker assert:

> An idea that is not compatible with the prevalent values and norms of the social system will not be adopted as rapidly as an innovation that is compatible; (and that) the adoption of an incompatible innovation often requires the prior adoption of a new value system. (p.22)

The role of "values" within the learning process is central to each of the "new" learning theories. In their description of "innovative learning" Botkin et al (1979, p.40) proclaim that "values can be said to be the enzymes of any innovative learning process." They further explain:

> The role of values distinguishes maintenance from innovative learning. Maintenance learning tends to ignore those values not inherent in the social or political structures it is designed to maintain, and even to keep its instrinsic values implicit and unexposed. Yet it is the tension created by the pressure to select from among multiple values that catalyzes innovative learning. (p.40)

As in Botkin et al's innovative learning model, a fundamental difference between Argyris' single and double-loop learning concerns the role of values in the learning process. As Argyris explains:

> Individuals or organizations who achieve their intentions or correct an error without examining their underlying values may be said to be single-loop learning. They are acting like a thermostat that corrects error (the room is too hot or too cold) without questioning its program (why am I set at 68 degrees?). If the thermostat did question its setting or why it should be measuring heat at all, that would require reexamining the underlying program. This is double-loop learning. (1982, pp.xi-xii)

Houle (1980) chose to question basic values and assumptions underlying continuing education and professionalism:

> Long-accepted ways of 'keeping up to date' and specialized programs of continuing education appear to be unsatisfactory in establishing and maintaining a desirably high level of professional practice....(Since) no single solution appears likely to achieve the desired purification and enhancement of practice or to accomplish the heights of service that a more refined professionalism might bring....(perhaps) the entire conception of professionalism must be rethought and its practices restructured. (pp. 9-10)

Thus, once he had reformulated the problem, Houle (Chapter 2) suggests a solution which utilizes a dynamic conception of "professionalization" rather than the traditionally static view of professionalism.

Because of my own particular background--I was occupationally socialized within nursing, a group which has been striving for professional status throughout the past century; intellectually trained to facilitate life-long learning in myself and others; and philosophically attuned to the need for a conceptual framework of innovative lifelong learning--Houle's prescriptive theory makes a great deal of theoretical sense to me. However, the real challenge would be to help nurses to discern the

meaning that learning holds for them in order to help make continuing learning a more integrated, professionalizing process within their lives.

> What education means (to a person) is a significant element in the way he thinks of his total past and anticipates his future. His life-world is shaped as he encounters and interprets the vast social process, education, of which he is a part; he lives the meaning education has for him. (Chamberlin, 1974, p.12)

Chamberlin further maintains that although "educational activities are marked by a common structure and process...what education means to each person depends upon the interpreting subject" (p.135)

Since my primary goal was "seeing rather than measuring" (Day & Stake, 1978, p. c:11) current values and meanings attached to continuing learning, my inquiry required an "expansionistic, inductive" approach (Guba, 1978). Within a "naturalistic inquiry paradigm (Guba, 1978), I chose to utilize a case study approach in which the case or "bounded system" (Smith, cited in Stake, 1978, p.7) consisted of a group of nurses within a particular hospital setting. Since the hospital is a familiar environment for me, I chose it for a setting for the study so that I could more quickly and effectively concentrate my efforts on a relatively narrow aspect of daily activities. On the other hand, in my role as researcher, I was approaching this familiar setting from a totally fresh perspective.

I chose to conduct a cross-culturally based pair of case studies--one British and one American--to aid my understanding of the role of socio-cultural values (life-world) in influencing those values and meanings--both individually and collectively. For even though Chamberlin (1974) argues that the specific, private meanings held by individuals differ from one to the other, Kerlinger suggests that "although everyone sees things a bit differently....there must be some common core of meaning in all concepts....a common cultural meaning" (1973, p.566).

Specifics regarding methodological details and findings of this inquiry are forthcoming in subsequent papers. However, following hours of observation and interviews in both settings, several critical issues emerge which have specific implications for the future. The most basic of these appears to be directly linked with the fundamental question of values.

Nursing is a profession in which continuing learning can occur on a daily basis. I found that "experience" was the most frequently used term throughout the entire study. Now some have argued that when learning is defined too broadly and is "nearly coterminous with consciousness, few adults could fail to qualify as an active learner" (McKenzie & Shipp, 1981). However, I generally found that not to be the case. Nurses' attitudes toward learning and their willingness to question appeared to be the fundamental difference between "learners" and "non-learners." The difference can be described as "an approach, both to knowledge and to life, that emphasizes human initiative" (Botkin et al, 1979, p.8); or

"learning that includes, but goes beyond discovery...that leads to new action and new problem solving, which enables individuals and systems to continue to learn" (Argyris, 1982, p.160).

In short, this inquiry reinforces the need for educators to assist individuals, through a process of double loop learning (Argyris, 1982), not only to be aware of the need for a lifelong learning approach, but also how to more fully incorporate it within their lives.

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A PRESCRIPTIVE MODEL FOR THE USE OF SCIENTIFIC INFORMATION IN SOLVING PROBLEMS OF PRACTICE IN EDUCATION

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A PRESCRIPTIVE MODEL FOR THE USE OF SCIENTIFIC INFORMATION IN SOLVING PROBLEMS OF PRACTICE IN EDUCATION

This paper is the outgrowth of a project which began initially as a concern the authors share. The concern can be illustrated in the following two examples. Two adult educators were discussing how they worked with anxious students in their classes. Both were familiar with and made use of a particular set of studies on anxiety but each had developed different solutions which revealed fundamental conflicts in their application of the basic information. The conflict was not due to reading the primary source incorrectly but to making assumptions about the findings that would be in harmony with their own approach to teaching. The second example involves two adult educators arguing about the role of anxiety in learning. One educator was rejecting any benefits the presence of anxiety could have on learning while the other educator was proposing the opposite position, that anxiety could be of benefit in learning. It was apparent that each educator's position was based on different sets of findings and that they had paid little attention to the contexts of the studies from which the findings arose, the measures of anxiety employed, and the nature of other factors in each of the studies.

These problems may be too hastily dismissed as examples of careless reading, lack of knowledge, or poor listening due to one of a number of reasons from status needs to an adversary relationship. In some incidents these explanations may be the correct explanation; however, in other cases the problem involves the failure to make appropriate and accurate translations of information.

It is important at this point to clarify the critical characteristics of the terms information and translation. In this paper, we speak of two types of information: scientific and practical. We view scientific information as findings derived from research studies, and practical information as the product of experience and practice. The meanings of these two terms will be more fully developed in various parts of this paper. Translation has the meaning of changing from one place, position, or condition to another without change in quality or quantity. The synonym for us would be conversion. Thus our use of translation refers to the conversion of research findings into forms suitable for their use in solving a problem of a practical nature, without losing the initially intended meaning of the scientific information in the conversion process.

The translation of information in education is not restricted to the instruction of learners. Adult educators are continually making applications of findings and theories from such fields as psychology, sociology, business and political science to problems encountered in administration and the planning and organization of programs. The translation is often direct and there is little or no discussion of the assumptions and unique conditions which determine the extent of tie between the source of the information and the application of the information. For example, findings which indicated the successfulness of non-directive leadership in facilitating the movement of laboratory learning groups through developmental phases were employed in choosing leadership behaviors for facilitating substantive learning in an adult classroom group. Such translation may be appropriate, but the appropriateness cannot be determined until there is a careful examination of what is common and not common between the two settings, including aims, conditions, clientele and goals.

The problem of translating scientific information into practice terms is not endemic only to education. The profession of social work has been concerned with the translation of information as shown in the work of Rothman (1980). Industry has also encountered the problem in areas of production and has created the Research and Development model as one means of solving it. Similarly, agriculture, in meeting production and distribution problems, has made use of diffusion of innovation models. These models portray specific approaches to the translation and utilization of information. They have in common the characteristic that the initial situation or the situation in which the information was developed and tested is directly related to the application situation. In agriculture, for example, the experimental station creates an environment for trying a specific practice which is the same type of environment as that in which the practice is to be applied. When seed corn is experimentally planted and cultivated in a given region of the country, it takes into account the idiosyncrasies of that particular area. These models operate on the equation that the translation of information must first be structured on the mutuality of the aims and conditions between the development phase and the application phase. This designed mutuality seldom exists between such fields as psychology and education, and it is often the case that solutions for educational problems are sought from other fields. The authors contend that, in the translation of scientific information gathered in one field and to be applied in another field, mutuality between the critical aspects of both the setting and processes through which the information was developed and the setting and processes through which it is translated into practice must be explicitly established if appropriate utilization is to be effected. Further, as the practitioner embraces the scientific information and gains a sense of personal ownership of it (when it becomes knowledge to the practitioner) and the practitioner begins to translate it into practice terms, issues of an ontological, epistemological, and valuational nature arise which must also be given careful attention if the information is to be used appropriately.

The foregoing discussion hopefully has called attention to the fact that a systematic and tedious process, rather than a loosely constructed task, faces the practitioner who wishes to appropriately use scientific information in developing solutions to practice problems. This process and the issues inherently within it comprise one realm --the Instrumental Realm--of a model which the authors have created for knowledge utilization in problem-solving. A second realm of the model, the Psycho-Social Realm is comprised of those factors of an affective nature which may come to bear at any point on the practitioner's movement through the steps of problem-solving. These factors may exist as feelings, values, needs, predispositions, and other intra-personal factors as well as interpersonal, group organizational, and community dynamics, norms, and pressures which are experienced at various levels of consciousness by the practitioner and, as forces, influence the quantity, quality, and rate of practitioner actions in problem solving. A third realm of the model, the Cognitive Realm, contains those factors of an intellectual nature which may impinge singly, recurrently, or ongoingly on the movement of the practitioner through the steps of problem-solving. These factors may exist as thinking styles, thinking formats, theoretical perspectives, process knowledge repertoire, verbal language usage, and other cognitive processes which the practitioner brings to his/her problem-solving efforts and, as forces, also influence the quantity, quality, and rate of the practitioner's

problem-solving actions.

What follows now is a schematization (Figure 1) of the model and then the authors' attempt to describe and clarify the Instrumental Realm of the model by guiding the reader through a possible venture of a practitioner in search of a solution to a practice problem.

Our practitioner is a male instructor of an adult evening class on social issues. Since the enrollment is small, the class is being conducted as a seminar. A few sessions had passed, two members were not saying anything during the sessions, and the instructor's efforts at getting them to verbally take part have been unsuccessful. The instructor viewed this situation as a problem: I have two members in my seminar who hardly ever say or do anything and I have been unable to get them to participate. This is clearly a situational problem. The instructor saw the problem in terms of an immediate situation which he was facing and states the problem in those terms, and it is with that meaning that the label situational problem is being used.

Practitioners who seek help for difficulties stated as situational problems usually ask tactic-seeking questions. The tactic-seeking question which the instructor asked was: What can I do to help these two members become more active contributors in the seminar? The instructor was seeking some means to help two members to become participants. Questions of this kind are understood to be in search of specific ways (e.g., techniques) to handle the difficulty in its immediate form. These ways to handle the difficulty are called tactical because the action to be carried out has only a limited or immediate end in view. The instructor wanted to know how to help these two members, and if we accept the question in its literal terms he was not seeking a more fundamental level of knowledge. Indeed, he may be satisfied to have an answer drawn from some repertory of tactics. For instance, someone may suggest that he ask all seminar members to prepare a brief statement on a central issue and present their statements at the next seminar session.

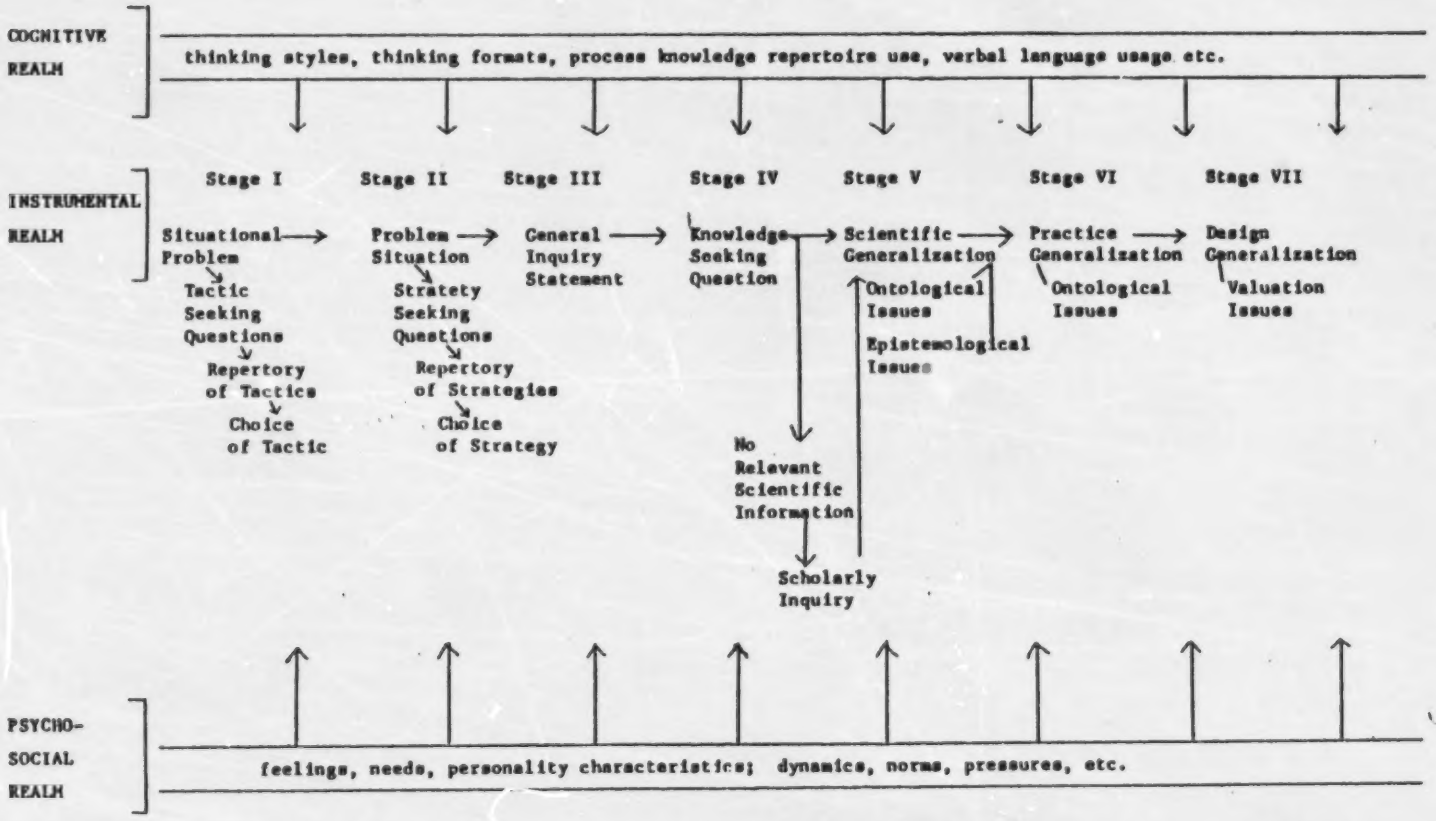
Referring to Figure 1, we have just isolated Stage I and described a practitioner's movement through the components of that stage--if it were the practitioner's desire to settle for a tactic rather than scientific information. If, though, the instructor can be persuaded from taking some action based on practice and to look to scientific information instead, then the instructor can be assisted to move his problem to another level of discourse--the problem situation level.

At the problem situation level, there is a statement of a general difficulty which practitioners have encountered in similar settings. A broader perspective of the problem is thus achieved. The elements involved are identified in plural, non-specific, categorical form and their interrelationships are clarified. When our instructor restated his situational problem as a problem situation it became: There are leaders of small learning groups who are unable to get reluctant members to participate.

Practitioners who seek help for difficulties stated as problem situations usually ask strategy-seeking questions. Questions of this kind are often in search of methods, procedures, or approaches to handle difficulties of a kind. If our instructor was ready to settle for a strategy, rather than seek further

Figure 1

A PRESCRIPTIVE MODEL FOR KNOWLEDGE UTILIZATION IN PROBLEM SOLVING



for scientific information, his question might be: What can leaders of small learning groups do to get members, who are reluctant to participate, to participate more? While both tactic-seeking questions and strategy-seeking questions are principally pragmatic inquiries, expressing expedient motives, the strategy-seeking question is at a slightly higher level of abstraction. It makes an appeal for solutions for a general situation rather than a specific problem. Someone may advise our instructor to design his class sessions in a way that employs ad hoc and permanent sub-groups so that members may find it easier to speak to each other.

Again referring to Figure 1, we have just described a practitioner's movement through the components of Stage II--if it were the practitioner's desire to settle for a strategy rather than scientific information. It may be inaccurate to describe concerns for tactics or strategies as narrowly utilitarian, but their intent is not primarily to further one's academic or formal knowledge as a basis for deriving or selecting solutions to difficulties.

If we can interest our instructor in turning to scientific information for solutions to his problem, in expanding his knowledge repertoire from which he can then develop other solutions in the future, and in learning a format for the translation of that knowledge into practice terms, then we would ask him to re-express the problem situation as a general inquiry statement. A general inquiry statement points out the possible existence of relationships among variables germane to both the problem situation and the initial situational problem. In this case, our instructor's general inquiry statement might be: There are factors which influence the participation of members in a learning group.

The general inquiry statement should be followed by a knowldege-seeking question. The intent of a knowledge-seeking question is to establish what scientific information exists which could be used to resolve a specified problem and not what information on procedures could be incorporated into a plan of action. Questions of this kind contain no specific reference to a particular situation or person, but probe for the existence of influence or associative relationships between variables. Also, questions of this kind are usually in search of generalizations which eventually advise what actions might be wisest to take in order to influence the phenomenon under consideration. Our instructor's knowledge-seeking question may be: What factors influence the participation of members in a learning group?

The postponement of seeking more immediate solutions to a problem and raising knowledge-seeking questions, instead, moves the seeker's energy from a concern with practical information to a concern with scientific information. The tactic and strategy forms of information are usually directly transferred from a particular source to a given situation. Such transfers of information do not involve an examination of the conceptual framework upon which the tactics and strategies are based. The tactics and strategies are employed as the user believes they can be used to resolve the difficulties being encountered. Sources of such information are usually exchanges among professionals of ideas derived from practice. As long as one settles for tactic-seeking or strategy-seeking questions, scientific information as a source of problem solving is likely to be more ignored than used. Referring to Figure 1, we have just explained the nature of Stages III and IV.

Following a knowledge-seeking question, there exists two possibilities. One is where there is scientific information available, the other is where no scientific information exists. Figure 1 shows the two alternatives as a bifurcated arrow, one arrow leading to scientific generalization, the other leading to no

relevant scientific information. Each of these will be discussed in turn.

Ideally, a knowledge-seeking question retrieves scientific generalizations-statements based on empirical research that meet the standards of scientific explanation. Two scientific generalizations in response to our instructor's knowledge-seeking question could be: Members who have a basic sense of security in the group are more likely to take risks within the group than members who do not; and members who perceive themselves as having high power and perceive other members as being supportive toward them are likely to feel more secure within the group than members who perceive themselves as having low power and perceive other members as being non-supportive. These scientific generalizations, as is the case with all scientific generalizations, are based within a conceptual framework which not only delineates the specifications for the key terms of the statement, but also defines the assumptions and propositions within which limits the statement is bounded.

It is also possible for a knowledge-seeking question to reap no relevant scientific information. In this case, the question may very well become one which seeks the design of research studies more so than the design of practitioner actions. Thus, the finding of no relevant information in the proposed model for knowledge utilization is a significant finding, since it helps in the "grass roots" identification of areas of needed knowledge development through inquiry and can act as a force toward the expansion of priority information in one's professional field.

If our instructor had retrieved the scientific generalizations mentioned above, then he would be in a position to translate them into a practice generalization. A practice generalization is a statement which reorganizes a scientific generalization into a suggestion for persons as practitioners on what they can do to bring about some outcome desired by the practitioner. It is a statement which suggests means toward ends. It differs from a tactic or a strategy in that it does not provide specific plans of action, although it clearly identifies a line of action. Tactics and strategies may be based only on the merits of successful practice, but practice generalizations are always based on scientific generalizations. A practice generalization which might be logically developed from the aforementioned scientific generalizations would be: Leaders of small groups who wish to facilitate the risk-taking of members within the group can do so by helping members feel a basic sense of security within the group; and leaders can help members feel a basic sense of security within the group by saying and doing those things which increase members' perceptions of their own power and members' perceptions of the supportiveness of other members toward them and decrease members' perceptions of non- or low power and members' perceptions of non-supportiveness of other members toward them. This is noted as Stage VI in Figure 1.

After our instructor has the above-mentioned practice generalization in hand, he would be encouraged to translate it into a design generalization. A design generalization is a statement which is a logical extension of the practice generalization and adds further suggestiveness for action to it. It operationalizes the practice generalization through the use of past experiences, methods literature, and imaginative creations which logically match the generally suggested action in the practice generalization. The design generalization provides suggestions for possible action from which our instructor can select and then concretize each selection through specific methods and techniques responsive to the idiosyncrasies of his particular setting. Our instructor might develop the following design generalization. In order to increase the extent to which members will perceive other members

as being supportive, the leader could arrange the tables and chairs in a circle, provide name tags with smiling faces, and ask members to speak initially about their positive expectations for the group. In order to increase members' perceptions of their own power, the leader could listen to and reflect back members' contributions, ask members to help develop the group's agenda, and help the group become acquainted with the resources each member brings to the group's work.

In some situations one design generalization may be an operationalization of two or more complementary and compatible practice generalizations. The conditions of complementarity and compatibility should be especially noted. In combining practice generalizations, it is critical to establish that the scientific generalizations which serve as the source of the practice generalizations are compatible. For example, if one practice generalization has been developed from research findings on college students and a second from research findings on middle management executives, the compatibility is suspect; and even more so when the setting in which the design generalization is to be applied is a small group of neighbors facing a community problem.

Referring to Figure 1, our discussion of scientific, practice, and design generalizations has hopefully explained the nature of Stages V, VI, and VII. Our instructor would now re-confront his initial situational problem and apply to it the specific procedures, methods, and techniques which he has developed as means of concretizing his design generalization.

In a longer paper available from the authors, they discuss the impingement of forces from the Cognitive and Psychosocial realms upon movement through the Instrumental Realm. They also explicate the complexities of knowledge translation introduced through ontological, epistemological, and valuational issues, as well as issues of definition and context.

It is evident from this inquiry that the translation of information is not a simple affair. The aim here has not been to dissuade anyone from engaging in the translation of information; quite the contrary. The aim has been to present a functional model which would enable the translation and the appropriate use of information. The process needs to be implemented, however, with understanding, appreciation and rigor. The presentation of the model and the discussion of basic issues have been directed to highlighting the value and significance of these three orientations which clearly are attitudes basic to the proper translation of information.

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THE TORTOISE OR THE HARE: WHO GETS THE SHEEPSKIN? ADULTS' PACE THROUGH COLLEGE

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The Tortoise or the Hare: Who Gets the Sheepskin? Adults' Pace Through College

As growing numbers of adult students matriculate at colleges and universities, information about how this clientele pursues a degree may be useful. How does their pace differ - if at all - from the classic pattern of full time attendance for four years? Does the pace of those adults who drop out differ from the pace of adults who graduate?

While stereotypes about adult students exist, few studies have explored adult degree-seekers' progress toward graduation. Studies that have considered the adult degree-seeker apart from the noncredit "lifelong learner" have focused on the needs and characteristics of these groups rather than their actual patterns of participation from semester to semester (e.g., Solomon, Gordon and Ochsner, 1979).

Some research has considered the credit loads of adult women who return to college to complete a degree. Most of this research has revealed a slower than traditional pace through college. Astin (1976) reported that women usually enrolled in degree programs on a part-time basis. Lunneborg, Olch and de Wolf (1974) found that adult women carried significantly fewer credits per quarter than did adult men. Edgerton (1977) reports that a Northeastern University study found that 74% of its adult women students took only one or two courses per semester. Likewise, Brandenburg (1974) refers to the "restricted" pace at which women can take courses. These conclusions create the image of the adult student as a part-time student without specifying the number of credits actually carried each semester.

On questions concerning adult students' rates of stopping out of college, there is less empirical research and more assumption. Cross (1981) has stated that "adults should be able to drop in and out of college" (page 7). However, stop-out patterns of degree-seeking adults have rarely if ever been formally investigated. Finally, the assumption that many adult students return to college as nondegree bound "special" students and subsequently matriculate bears investigation. Cross (1981) refers to this pattern among Black adults and Brandenburg (1974) suggests that some adult women may return to college for just a few credits and become stimulated to reexamine their lives. Seldom has this possible shift from nondegree to degree-seeking status been studied.

In order to investigate some of the assumptions identified above, the present study was conducted during 1981 on two campuses within the University of Wisconsin System. The main interest of the study was the rate of progress degree-seeking adult students maintained as they moved toward their degrees at these institutions. Specifically, the study posed the following questions:

1. How many credits do adult students typically take each semester and how stable is the credit load per semester for each student?

2. How often--if at all--do adult students stop out, that is, carry no credits in a particular semester?

3. How many adult students begin their return to college as nondegree bound "specials," or with only a small credit load?

METHOD

The study is based on analysis of the transcripts of 180 adult student graduates and two contrast groups: one of 230 younger students at the University of Wisconsin-Madison and the University of Wisconsin-Green Bay and another of 63 adults who dropped out of UW-Green Bay.

Analysis of transcripts of graduates was selected as the method for this study because transcripts contain much information concerning a student's educational pace. The number of credits carried each semester, the gaps or stop-outs in the student's college career, and status on entering (degree-seeking vs. "special") can be easily seen. Other information such as the number of transfer credits and the grade point average also appears on the transcript and was analyzed in this study as an additional point of interest. In counting the number of credits carried in a semester, audits and courses from which a student withdrew were not counted. No credits completed during summers were counted, although these are included in the final grade point average. All credits which counted toward a degree were included, in addition to courses with a grade of F and repeated courses.

Sample of Adult Student Graduates. All of the adult graduates were graduates of the regular on-campus bachelor's degree programs. Graduate students were not included. Thus the group included the total population of regular adult student graduates, aged 29 and older, in the May and August 1980 graduating classes at UW-Green Bay and a randomly drawn sample from UW-Madison's May and August 1980 adult graduates. Transcripts of students who were 25, 26, 27 or 28 years of age at graduation were eliminated because they presumably would have been younger than 25 years for much of their college experience.

Sample of Younger Students. To provide a contrast group with which data on the adult graduates could be compared, a random sample of 230 graduates who were younger than 25 years old at graduation was drawn from the May and August 1980 graduating classes of each institution, 50 from UW-Green Bay and 180 from UW-Madison. The sample included 111 males, 117 females, and 2 unknown cases. Their transcripts were analyzed for number of credits carried per semester, for stop-out periods and for grade point average. These data were coded in the same way as for the adult graduates.

Group of Adult Dropouts. Defining an adult "dropout" is not easy. An adult student can transfer to another college or stop-out for a semester or two and then reenter. To avoid contaminating our pool of adult dropouts with "stopout" types, we took several measures. First, the adult dropout had to have been a matriculated student aged 25 or over (as of Sept. 1, 1977) who attended at least

one semester but never graduated nor returned to UWGB during the next eight semesters. While eight semesters out seems a somewhat rigidly long time, it guarantees that virtually every student in the group is a dropout and not just taking a break. The UWGB Computer Center provided a listing of all adult students registerd in Fall 1977, along with a record of each student's enrollment in subsequent semesters and whether or not graduation occurred. Thus it was possible to create a pool of adults who dropped out of UWGB, and from their transcripts, piece together their educational history prior to 1977, when they dropped out. Second, the UWGB Registrar's records of transcripts sent to other colleges were checked to see how many of the 63 dropouts had records sent to other colleges where they may have completed their degrees. The results of this check showed that only 11 of the 63 had ever requested that a transcript be sent from UWGB. So it is quite unlikely that most graduated from, or even attended, another institution.

RESULTS

Altogether 180 transcripts of adult graduates aged 29 and over were analyzed: 85 men and 95 women. About two-thirds, or 58, of the women fell into the 29-34 year old age group and the remaining third, or 37, were 35 years or older. Among the males, the great majority, or 73, were in the 29-34 year old age group, with the remaining 12 being 35 years or older. In age and sex distribution, the 180 adults generally mirror characteristics noted in the literature on adult students. For instance, notably more women than men over age 35 are seeking a degree (Tittle and Denker, 1977) and more adults fall into the younger age category (29-34) than into the older (Aslanian and Brickell, 1980). The 63 dropouts did not differ significantly in age or sex.

Average Credit Load. However, dropouts and graduates did differ dramatically in the average number of credits they carried each semester. Dropouts carried an average of only 8.2 credits per semester, compared to the graduates' average load of 11.5. The most notable difference exists between the women, aged 35 and over, who dropped out, and their counterparts who graduated (11.0 credits vs. 4.4 credits). Younger graduates took a mean credit load of 14.1 credits per semester. In analyzing percentages of adult graduates and dropouts who carried particular credit loads, we found that many more dropouts carried an average of six or fewer credits during their time in college. This phenomenon applies particularly to women: Note that the majority of women who dropped out carried small credit loads, while only two percent of the women graduates had attended college in this fashion.

Stability of Credits Carried Across Semesters. Many adult graduates varied their credit loads from semester to semester. This can be seen by examining the standard deviation of individuals' credit loads. More graduates than dropouts allowed their credit loads to fluctuate so that they followed a somewhat inconsistent pattern of perhaps twelve credits one semester, three the next, ten the next, and so on. In other words, fewer graduates rigidly stuck with a particular credit load each semester.

Stop-Out Patterns. Frequent stop-outs, defined as a semester or more during which a student does not take coursework, do not characterize the attendance patterns of most dropouts or graduates. The majority of both groups attended college over consecutive semesters without a break and the stop-out patterns of each are highly similar.

Transfer Credits. Dropouts and graduates differed somewhat on the number of credits they were able to transfer into college to apply toward their degree. As we might expect, a slightly higher percentage of dropouts entered with no transfer credits, and fewer dropouts were able to apply large numbers of credits toward their degrees. In addition to the difference in transfer credits, a related difference emerged concerning the amount of credit by exam and credit for prior learning that graduates and dropouts earned.

Choice of Major Upon Entering College. The classification of dropouts and graduates when they entered college shows that a slightly higher percentage of adults who later dropped out first enrolled with no declared major, compared to the graduates. Almost all of both groups were classified as degree-seeking rather than as "special" (non-degree candidate). Almost no dropouts began their college work as specials. Many of the dropouts (41%) never did declare a major before they dropped out.

Grade Point Average. Adult graduates and dropouts differed in the grade point averages they achieved in their time at college; the grade point average of the dropouts at the time they dropped out was substantially lower than that achieved by the graduates (1.5 vs. 3.2). Clearly, those who dropped out were not doing as well academically as those who graduated.

IMPLICATIONS

This study of educational pace offers several implications for policies concerning adult degree seekers. Since comparing percentages does not demonstrate a cause and effect relationship between the factors we've studied and dropping out, we must be cautious about any policy implications we draw from the study. Nevertheless, we offer these suggestions:

1. Prospective adult students should be informed that few adult students have proceeded to graduation by carrying extremely small (six or fewer) credit loads each semester. At some point in the adult students' college career, it seems that a greater commitment is needed. Within reason and with awareness of individual needs, it seems that adult students should be encouraged to carry healthy credit loads or at least be informed about the patterns followed by adults who graduated.

2. The university should provide whatever services and support it can to adult students so that they can carry near full time credit loads. Financial aids, child care and other services may be important in such support.

3. There seems to be no call to unduly pressure adult students into declaring a major at time of entry. Early declaration of major did not seem to be the pattern of many more adult graduates than dropouts. Of course, declaring a major is an advantage because it puts the student under the care of a particular department. However, this factor was not greatly different for adult graduates and dropouts.

4. There seems to be no reason to advise adult students not to stop out for a semester or not to vary their credit load from semester to semster. These activities did not characterize dropouts. In fact, credit load variation is "normal" behavior for adults who graduate. This finding should be communicated to adults and those who work with them.

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SECOND LANGUAGE ILLITERACY AND LEARNING TO READ: A CROSS-CULTURAL PERSPECTIVE

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SECOND LANGUAGE ILLITERACY AND LEARNING TO READ: A CROSS-CULTURAL PERSPECTIVE

The purpose of this paper is to provide a review and synthesis of existing literature relevant to the discussion of language learning and culture in the second language classroom. Because of the complexity of such an investigation, this paper will focus primarily on one aspect of verbal learning and literacy, that of word association and its potential for revealing progress toward the learner's goal of learning to read in a second language.

Language and Learning

Psychologists, linguists, and anthropologists have long been interested in the relationship of language and learning (Carroll, 1964; Cole & Means, 1981; Goodenough, 1981; Vygotsky, 1934/1962). Recent attention to the problem of illiteracy in developing countries has led to significant research in literacy acquisition in different cultural contexts, with interesting observations of the potential effect that schooling has on this process (Scribner & Cole, 1981).

Much of the current debate in the field focuses on the issue of linguistic determinism as originally posited by Whorf (1956). The Whorf Hypothesis can be stated in the form of two principles. The first principle, that of linguistic determinism, states that language determines thought. The second principle, that of linguistic relativity, follows from the first, that every language embodies a definite world view.

> No individual is free to describe nature with absolute impartiality but is constrained to certain modes of interpretation even while he thinks himself most free. The person most nearly free in such respects would be a linguist familiar with very many widely different linguistic systems. As yet no linguist is in any such position. We are thus introduced to a new principle of relativity, which holds that all observers are not led by the same physical evidence to the same picture of the universe, unless their linguistic backgrounds are similar, or can in some ways be calibrated. (p. 214)

Hörmann (1979) observed, "The thesis of language as a determiner of thought and perception and especially the thesis of psycholinguistic relativity of the thought in a given language have both been very influential in recent years" (p. 292). Evidence of Whorf's influence on modern psycholinguistic thought can be seen in Smith (1978) who discussed learning to read and the importance of developing an understanding of the reader's "theory of the world."

Further evidence of how linguistic determinism has influenced research on learning to read among different cultural groups can be found by reviewing the research from the 1960's and early 1970's among Black school children in the United States. Harber (1981), after summarizing existing literature in this area, suggested that "additional research is clearly needed to further clarify the causes of the poor reading achievement evident among many culturally different children and to empirically test proposed solutions to this very serious and complex educational problem" (p. 185).

Although the Whorf Hypothesis has fallen into some disfavor in recent years, most criticism has been not of the principles as stated above, but of the analysis of language which has led to the formation of these principles (Hörmann, 1979). Opponents of the Whorf Hypothesis have offered contemporary psycholinguistics the notion of language universals (Osgood, May, & Miron, 1975). For language teachers working with multilingual student groups, the insights pro-

vided by language universals can at least superficially be much more promising than those of the relativists.

Word Association and Literacy

Learning to read can be considered an obvious manifestation of the thinking process, much like learning to speak. Native language adult illiterates have usually been able to master the oral code of their language, but for one reason or another, the connection between learning the oral code and the written code of their native language has not been made. Among adult native language illiterates Dinnan (1971) observed that a common manifestation of their cognitive processes is an inability to respond in exercises of free word association in certain patterns which otherwise characterize the response pattern of most literate adults.

Galton (1879) may be the first in the modern era of psychology to attempt to understand the link between association and cognition. Kent and Rosanoff (1910) actually attempted to find a relationship between patterns of verbal responses to word stimuli and mental health. The Kent-Rosanoff word list developed for this study was later used in number of studies in the 1960's (Brown & Berko, 1960; Carroll, Kjeldergaard, & Carton, 1962; Ervin, 1961; Palermo & Jenkins, 1965; Riegle & Riegle, 1961; Rosenzweig, 1961, 1964) which attempted to examine the relationship of word association to other characteristics of respondents. For example, Rosenzweig (1961, 1964) studied the response patterns of various groups from different linguistic communities and from different educational and social levels. Among his many observations he noted that verbal habits differ systematically according to social groupings within a language community, and that the more a word stimulus evokes a dominant response from members of one language community, the more likely it is to evoke the same response in other language communities when translated into its equivalent form. Brown and Berko (1960) and Ervin (1961) observed changes in word response patterns which varied with the age of the respondent. Palermo and Jenkins (1965) observed variability in response patterns based on the sex of the respondent. Cowart (1971) and Shen and McNinch (1971) found a positive relationship between reading achievement and response patterns. The implications of all of these studies have been that cognitive processes as manifested by word association vary systematically with age, sex, and educational level of respondents, but not necessarily with language or cultural background.

Dinnan (1970-71) based his "key to learning" on the notion of word association which was later applied to an entire literacy curriculum for native English speaking adults (Ulmer & Dinnan, 1981). Dinnan's "key" is based entirely on the validity of the notion of paradigmatic and syntagmatic responses to word stimuli as a measure of an individual's readiness to read. Having tested thousands of subjects, he concluded that the ability of a subject to provide a paradigmatic response to an oral stimulus was related to the acquisition of a formal structure of learning, the ability to use one language code (oral language) as a base reference for learning a new code (reading). He also asserted that such response patterns are characteristic of all language groups.

What are paradigmatic and syntagmatic responses? How do they differ and why? Generally, we can label a response paradigmatic if it falls within a certain category of words often determined by part of speech. For example, a noun stimulus will provoke a noun response (man-woman, table-chair, boy-girl); a verb stimulus will provoke a verb response (love-hate, run-walk, sit-stand), and so on. Paradigmatic responses are generally antonyms or contrasts of the word stimulus. Syntagmatic responses, on the other hand, are derived from the experience of the respondent and are normally represented by a type of closure

(hot-dog, city-Chicago, father-dead). Adults generally choose paradigmatic associations while children make syntagmatic responses. In addition, better readers tend to respond more paradigmatically. Poor readers, or illiterates, tend to respond syntagmatically.

It seems quite obvious why some individuals would respond syntagmatically. After all, they are merely making an association which they have frequently made in everyday language. For example, the verbal sequence "hot-cold" is rarely encountered or produced in reading or speaking. Instead, "hot-weather" or "hot-water" would be more likely associations. How do paradigmatic associations become strengthened? One possible explanation may be the need for good readers to be able to anticipate, or predict, what is likely to come next in a verbal message. In the process of narrowing down the possible alternatives available, there is a need to follow established categories or common reference points.

One obvious application of this phenomenon is the cloze procedure commonly used for testing reading comprehension. The cloze procedure generally consists of a reading passage which has had words randomly deleted. A respondent who can accurately fill in the missing word, or words of approximate value, is said to be an independent reader. This depends on the reader's ability to determine parts of speech as well as the possible range of words which would be semantically appropriate.

Implications for Practice

It appears, then, that the ability to respond paradigmatically is a universal characteristic of good readers, independent of their cultural background, but somewhat more dependent on age and educational background. The implications for practice in adult second language literacy instruction are many, given the apparent universal nature of paradigmatic responses as a prerequisite of reading readiness, since literacy instruction should be based from the start on helping the learner to develop cognitive processes which focus on the formation of systematic categories and relationships. Orem (in press) summarized some of these practices as follows:

1. Materials (oral and written) should be structured from the beginning to emphasize certain basic relationships in time, space, amount, and quality within the context of everyday living so as to maintain their interest.
2. Don't hesitate to teach word opposites, or lexical terms which can be otherwise logically grouped together such as colors, food, transportation, work tools, prepositions of direction.
3. Limit the written language to print and avoid cursive writing until the learner has a firm grasp of the system of print.
4. Reinforce basic relationships at all levels of instruction.
5. Students from different cultural backgrounds can be groups together for instruction. This is important for the vast majority of such ESL programs already in operation which cannot provide more individualized instruction.

Need for Further Research

Not since the 1960's and early 70's has there been much attention paid to this phenomenon of paradigmatic/syntagmatic associations and their potential for assessing reading readiness. What is needed now is more research on the presence of such a phenomenon among linguistically and culturally different groups and the development of literacy materials which reflect the results of such research.

Currently, major research in literacy has focused on first language literacy.

It seems impractical and unreasonable to expect ESL literacy instructors to teach literacy in the students' native languages despite the apparent soundness of such practice. Instructors will be aided immeasurably if materials and classroom practices can be developed which are based on sound research and theory and which help the adult second language illiterate from whatever first language background to acquire the necessary skills to learn to read in this new language.

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TRAINING A STAFF TO USE COMPETENCY BASED ADULT EDUCATION

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Training A Staff to Use Competency Based Adult Education

The Competency Based Adult Education Controversy

Before reviewing the controversy over CBAE, CBAE as it is used in this paper is defined by Fischer as:

> "1) Precise learning objectives and criteria for meeting objectives are known to and mutually determined by the teacher and the student. Objectives are stated in behavioral terms, and the objectives, criteria, means of assessment and alternative activities for developing the competency are public information. Activities are a means to an end rather than ends in themselves.
> 2) Accountability rests on the student's attainment of the objectives. The learner knows that she/he must demonstrate the competency and what is necessary for its demonstration.
> 3)The instruction is personalized. The learner has input in selecting objectives and activities and proceeds at his/her own pace " (Fischer, 1978).

Spady's most recent definition has an additional element. CBE is

> "A data-based, adaptive, performance oriented set of integrated processes that facilitate, measure, record and certify within the complex of flexible time parameters the demonstration of known, explicitly stated and agreed upon learning outcomes that reflect successful functioning in life roles " (Spady, 1977).

As one can see, CBAE has come to include both the concepts of CBE and functional life skills. This definition evolved from the major research project known as the Adult Performance Level (APL) study funded for one million dollars in 1970 by the U. S. Office of Education. The APL study was funded by USOE to

> "specify the functional competencies related to economic and educational success in today's society and to develop devices for assessing those competencies in the adult population of the U. S " (APL, 1977).

Stump from the National Institute of Education observed:

> "No project in the 15 year history of the ABE Program has had more widespread and rapid impact than the Adult Performance Level study. By the time the final report from this study was issued in 1977, two-thirds of the states had already decided to implement some form of competency-based adult education, almost all of them based on the APL findings.

> Within the next 3 years, seven major state or national level studies had refined, expanded, modified and left relatively intact the APL's identification of the range of competencies for adult life" (Stump, 1980).

However, critics of the project were more impressed by the vigor with which the APL project was promoted by USOE than the rigid deployment of the movement, a vigor which was generated before the research was completed. Griffith and Cervero implied that USOE funded a study to support a policy decision already made.

> "It seems remarkable that the U.S. Office of Education personnel could be so certain in advance of the research they proposed to fund that this approach would undoubtedly be the chosen system of ABE for the United States" (Griffith and Cervero, 1977).

Further, critics note that in 1975 USOE declared that the APL was an "approved priority program of national significance" and in 1976 supported the dissemination with ten million dollars, even though the final APL project report was not submitted until 1977.

The APL study provided a conceptual formulation of functional literacy consisting of a two way grid: Consumer Education, Government and Law, Health, Occupational Knowledge and Community Resources juxtaposed against communication skills, computation, problem solving, and interpersonal relations. This 20 cell grid was the basis for developing the APL test which was to measure competency in each cell.

Cervero, in a penetrating analyses, of the original data suggested that the APL test was essentially a test of reading, writing and computation.

In summary, there were criticisms of the APL study relating to the survey itself and to the promotion and endorsement given by the USOE. In spite of the criticism, APL, hence CBAE, became a part of the majority of literacy programs in the U.S. in the 1970s.

The National Impact of CBAE

Regardless of the controversy, USOE promoted APL/CBAE through national and regional workshops. The impact of the workshops and staff training was measured in 1977 by Parker and Taylor. Their survey of state directors and program personnel indicated that CBAE should be considered as an alternative program for adults, that staff training was a significant factor and in order for the momentum to continue, #309 monies and national support was needed. Support was provided and state directors did continue to provide staff training.

Taylor surveyed state directors in 1980 to find that 77% had a moderate to strong commitment to CBAE. Special demonstration funds (#310) in 1980 indicated that 2.3 million dollars was used by 31 (62%) of the states for CBAE (Taylor, 1980).

A review of 1981-82 #310 projects indicate 59 of the 262 are CBAE projects. Of those projects, 14 are directed to staff development of CBAE and represent 17 states and 1 territory or a total 34% participation of the states.

In summary, the initial impact of CBAE diminished in 5 years to endorsement by 62% of the states, then to 34% in 1981-82. A lack of research on the impact of CBAE can only lead one to speculate as to the reasons for the decline of CBAE, if in effect there is a decline. One state has mandated CBAE in its 3 year plan, and a growing number of states are showing an increased interest in CBAE. The state of Illinois is one of those states.

A CBAE Training Program in Illinois

In 1978-80, the Illinois State Board of Education conducted a 2 year CBAE staff training program. Participants were 30 ESL, ABE/GED instructors and administrators. The first 2-day training session was a highly technical effort which concentrated on the process of CBAE and the feasibility for use in the classrooms. It was comprised of a historical background of CBAE, hands-on demonstrations, APL, evaluation of current materials and curriculum development. Each participant reported their progress in program implementation in bi-monthly sessions, and developed modules for classroom use.

At the end of June, 1979, a second group was started with similar format. The second group of 20 persons concentrated on module development of reading, math, consumer education.

Interviews of participants were conducted to analyze the impact of this plan. Participants strongly agreed that the design of the workshop was effective and provided in-depth coverage of CBAE. All but one of the participants used CBAE in their classes within three months after the training. The group was divided on their perceived support of the Illinois Board of Education, and several participants indicated they would encourage the State Board to conduct training sessions again.

Participants were divided on their opinion of the utility of modules developed. One participant found it very time consuming and stated a more effective use of time would have been critiquing commercial materials. Unfortunately, very few CBAE materials were available in 1978. All but one participant is supportive of CBAE today and all but one participant indicated use of CBAE in their work. Additional comments were:

- I appreciated the exposure to the process
- CBAE is now the forerunner of ESL
- There is a large CBAE/ESL movement in California that I am interested in
- The emphasis for me was practical application
- The interpersonal relationships I established were more beneficial than any learning that took place
- Some participants complained of too much work.

Two ABE programs integrated CBAE after the training session. One developed an APL diploma program. Over 100 diplomas have been issued since 1978. Another program developed the APL objectives into credit courses and provided the state's only Adult High School Diploma program. In 1979, 43 students used this program for high school completion.

In summary, the Illinois CBAE inservice, 1978, was assessed as effective by all of the participants interviewed. CBAE was used extensively in several programs and resulted in an APL diploma, and a high school credit granting program. Although the majority of participants indicated some use of CBAE today, the impact in the state is unclear and a more in-depth survey would be needed to assess use in 1982.

A Model for CBAE Staff Training

A training model similar to the Illinois model will be presented. Variations will include:

- team teaching--use an experienced CBAE teacher for quicker implementation
- demonstrate and evaluate current functional materials
- concentrate less on module development
- activities for retention-functional skills can be enhanced through field trips, speakers, hands-on activities, etc.
- recordkeeping--tips can help prevent serious problems in recording competencies

Conclusion

The momentum of CBAE seemed to reach its peak in the 1970s. However, in a very recent survey conducted by Taylor, 1982, over one-half of the State Directors of Adult Education are in-coming directors. This change may bring a new emphasis to ABE, possibly a new focus on staff development. Since 35% of the states are using federal funds for CBAE projects, and 90% of staff and directors surveyed indicate a priority for functional literacy, it would seem that a model for CBAE staff training similar to the Illinois model and the model developed in this presentation would be useful.

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EVALUATION OF THE IMPACTS OF A LONG-RANGE PLANNING EFFORT

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Evaluation of the Impacts of a Long-Range Planning Effort

INTRODUCTION

In 1979, a project called North in the '80s was carried out under the leadership of the University of Wisconsin-Extension (UWEX) in Northern Wisconsin. The project represented a hybrid of community development education and citizen participation in agency program planning since the goals of the undertaking resembled those of community development (see Compton and McCluskey, 1980), but the activities more closely typified citizen participation in agency planning (see Boyle, 1981). The purpose of this presentation will be to present the results of an evaluation of this project and, in the interest of focus, to develop implications for community development education.

Community development education here refers to efforts of a cross-section of concerned community members and program providers to bring about desired change through a process that is at least in part educational in nature. Such activity can be initiated by an educational institution such as the public school, community college, or the Cooperative Extension Service of a land-grant institution, or it may be initiated and guided by a community-based citizen or citizen/agency group or task force.

NORTH IN THE '80s

The project was spearheaded by UWEX to mobilize resources and provide direction for Northern Wisconsin and more specifically to provide direction for UWEX programming in the region. University specialists prepared position papers on major trends, problems, and opportunities. Faculty study committees gathered further information and identified educational needs. Then a two-day conference was held in which citizens, and government, agency, and institution representatives participated with faculty in discussing trends, problems, opportunities, and needs. Following the conference, reports of findings were disseminated to conference participants and to others in communities across the region. It was intended that the materials would then be used by UW-Extension, by agencies, and by other organizations and groups as a baseline for planning and implementing programs and actions to effect desired changes .

EVALUATION

In late 1981, two years after the conference, an evaluation of both the processes used and the results to date was conducted. Several approaches were used to gain a broad assessment of project processes and of the varying types of effects or impacts that derived from the project. Use of project materials and actions emanating from the project were examined. Influences of the project on UW-Extension programming directions were a subject of special concern. The evaluation also investigated benefits for individuals, organizations, and communities in the North and for the University in particular. Finally, outcomes in relation to project goals were assessed.

In the first phase of the evaluation, semi-structured telephone interviews were conducted with individuals selected to represent views of citizens, agency representatives, government officials, and faculty. The ideas derived

from the telephone survey were used to develop a mail questionnaire. A mail survey of four university groups, citizens, county Extension committee members, and agency/institution representatives was conducted in late 1981/early 1982. Responses were received from 115 representing 59 percent of the original mailing.

SELECTED FINDINGS

Dissemination, Usage, and Follow-through

Information from North in the '80s was used in a variety of ways. The principal use by those who received materials was to communicate issues to others. Among university faculty and administrators, 45 percent distributed information to others and 38 percent discussed it at meetings. Dissemination by community members (citizens, government officials, agency representatives) was less extensive. Information was also used by faculty in developing new programs or revising ongoing programs. Some faculty and agency representatives used information in developing plans of work and grant proposals.

A specific concern of the evaluation was to determine the extent to which North in the '80s influenced programming directions of UW-Extension. The majority of faculty who attended the conference said North in the '80s reinforced their previous program directions. For some faculty, the project led to new programming directions. The majority of faculty (63%) indicated that North in the '80s influenced their programming in at least one of ten broad concern areas highlighted by the project. Influence in three or more areas was noted by 29 percent.

In a few instances, participants in North in the '80s organized a follow-up planning activity to address more specific or localized concerns. For example, a group interested in cultural arts organized a conference called Arts in the '80s and developed plans for cultural programming in schools and communities.

Survey respondents were also asked to rate the quality of follow-through on implementation of plans after the North in the '80s conference. The mean rating across all respondents was 2.89 on a 5 point scale. It was one of the lowest rated dimensions of North in the '80s.

Benefits

Individuals. Benefits were examined on three different levels, the individual, northern people and communities, and the University. Across all subgroups, the major finding on individual benefits was that North in the '80s increased awareness of issues facing the North.

For some faculty, North in the '80s gave them a more long-term perspective on planning, helped them see relationships of different program areas, lent credibility to what they say, and identified useful resource persons. For some citizens, government officials, and agency representatives, the project improved their ability to make informed decisions, helped them plan for the future in their work, identified helpful university resources, identified other persons or organizations for sharing information and cooperation, and improved their attitude toward the North as a place to live and work.

People, Organizations, and Communities of the North. Community members and faculty were also asked to indicate effects of North in the '80s on the North. The three main benefits noted across all subgroups and by at least a fourth of the total sample were: attention more focused on issues facing the North (38%), increased knowledge (35%), and perception of the North as taking charge of its destiny (26%). Some community respondents thought there was a greater openness to new ideas. Some government officials and agency representatives thought cooperation among agencies was increased.

University. The three benefits to the University cited most frequently by faculty and administrators were that North in the '80s increased the attention of statewide faculty to the North (49%), improved the image of Extension as organized and active (4%), and provided an example of long-range planning for others to use (45%). Some faculty thought relationships of the University with citizens and agencies and relationships between faculty groups were improved. Others thought North in the '80s improved the quality of Extensin services in the North. Among community respondents, 31 percent also thought the quality of Extension services improved, and some thought the University was more willing to work with citizens and agencies.

Intended Outcomes

Both community members and faculty also rated the extent to which North in the '80s achieved several intended outcomes. Across all groups, the mean rating on a 5 point scale ranged from 4.04 to 2.92. The three outcomes rated highest were: identifying needs of people in the North (4.04), stimulating cooperation of agencies with UW-Extension (3.50), and acquainting people with UW-Extension (3.46). The lowest rated outcomes were setting programming goals (3.46), identifying solutions to problems (3.09), and helping to bring about action (2.92).

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

The North in the '80s project brought about a variety of effects, most of which could be categorized as attention and awareness outcomes. The project also influenced some university faculty to be more responsive to major issues facing the North in their programming. There was some indication that citizens, agency staff, and government officials had a greater capacity to make more informed decisions. Finally, the project seemed to promote more positive attitudes toward the North, toward the University, and among citizens, agencies, and the University.

It would not appear that the project was very successful in promoting recognizable, concrete community problem solving, goals, plans, or actions. Though instances of such activity were cited, they were rare. The major impact on concrete acti occurred through the influence of North in the '80s on programming planned and conducted by community-based Extension faculty.

DISCUSSION

Participation

North in the '80s was carried out in five phases: a planning phase, a study and analysis phase, a public input/validation phase, a dissemination phase, and a follow-through/application phase. University faculty were integrally involved in every phase. The primary point of participation of

community members was in the public input/validation phase represented by the conference. One of the most common observations of faculty and community members in the evaluation was that more citizens should have participated in the conference. Some thought community and political leaders and the private sector should have been better represented. Some thought community members should have been involved to a greater extent in all phases of the project. Heavy university involvement and limited community involvement may have hampered the sense of community involvement in directing the effort, may have engendered confusion as to purposes, and may have limited follow-through and overall impact on citizen awareness and interest. Among faculty, some felt that lack of citizen participation weakened the conclusions of the project on problems and needs of the North. To quote Compton and McCluskey (1980), "the importance of citizen participation in inducing a sense of identity and belonging--the foundation of development--cannot be overestimated (p. 228).

Expectations and Judgments

A project of the scope of North in the '80s inevitably evokes multiple agendas. Each participating group and individual may view the primary purposes differently, and in order to accomplish anything at all, it is sometimes necessary to move ahead with something less than consensus of all parties. When some parties are not involved in the planning stages but are involved later, different views of project purposes may result. In North in the '80s, some people viewed the project as a broad scale citizen-based community development effort, others as primarily an Extension program planning effort, and others as an agency or institution collaboration effort. The consequence was a project that sought to encompass many goals with limited success on each of them.

A risk involved in any effort to involve people and organizations, in identifying problems and needs, and planning activities to improve communities is that results will not match expectations. Confidence in institutions and of people in themselves may then be eroded. The North in the '80s project conveyed an exciting vision for participants in early stages. It was a vision of concerted action to bring about solutions to long-term challenges facing the North. As the project unfolded and the constraints of resources and competing interests came into play, the effort, quite naturally, fell short of its vision. Interestingly, few participants appeared to be disheartened by the outcomes. Some who had experience with similar efforts thought the original goals were unrealistic and felt the project accomplished what could be expected. Others thought the project should have accomplished more, especially in the areas of citizen participation and follow-through but took heart in the fact that something dramatic had been accomplished that focused attention on the special needs of the North. Unfortunately, for a few citizens and others the project may have reinforced the long-standing Northern feeling of powerlessness and lack of leadership.

Types of Impacts

There are scattered references in the literature as to the types of outcomes that can be brought about through community development education (Bennett, 1975, MacKeracker, et al., 1976, and Biddle, 1965). The evaluation of North in the '80s demonstrated that a broad based community development effort has many impacts ranging from increased awareness to changed attitudes to new knowledge and improved decision making capacities. Such a project can affect community identity and can bring about improved performance in

organizations and institutions. Finally, community development projects can lead to planned action to achieve community goals. Moreover, the type and magnitude of results varied for different groups participating in the project, for citizens, agency representatives, community-based faculty, campus-based faculty, and university administrators. All of these results were achieved to some extent in North in the '80s. None should be disregarded in evaluating the worth of the effort. More important, this evaluation identifies the range of outcomes that can be anticipated and consciously pursued in future projects.

Follow-through and Structure

One of the areas most frequently cited for improvement in North in the '80s was follow-through. Among many university faculty and community members, it was considered important to follow through on the development of concrete goals and plans, to bring about action, and to communicate such results to all interested parties. In North in the '80s, follow-through was left to each participating agency, institution, organization, or group that participated in the conference. Explicit strategies to insure that follow-through occurred in each of these diverse settings were not developed. Also, no mechanism was established to promote concrete action on a cross-sectional, cooperative basis with contributions of diverse organizations and groups. According to Compton and McCluskey (1980), the goals of community development education are best achieved through a structure that provides for organized action of a cross-section of a community's concerned citizens and providers.

IMPLICATIONS

The preceding findings and discussion provide a basis for the following suggestions for community development educators.

1. Seek full and representative participation of all key groups during all phases of a community development education project.

2. Recognize the significance of multiple agendas. Seek to develop consensus on priority purposes and priority results.

3. Recognize the impact of community development education projects on the attitudes people have about organizing to cope with problems. Seek to instill realistic expectations along with firm aspirations, expectations, and purposes.

4. Recognize that community development education projects impact at many levels from individual and group to organization, community, and region. Then plan so that you will facilitate those outcomes that are most important.

5. Develop a structure that will facilitate the complete community development process from need identification through goal setting, planning, activity implementation, and evaluation.

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PROBLEMS IN EVALUATING IN-SERVICE EDUCATION: DEVELOPING A FRAMEWORK FOR EVALUATION

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Problems in Evaluating In-Service Education: Developing a Framework for Evaluation

Statement of Purpose

Evaluation of in-service educational activities usually shows the activities to be successful. The type of instrument often selected for evaluation seeks to measure such things as the participants' satisfaction with the presenter, room size, meals, and amount of time for coffee breaks. Are such instruments reliable? Are they developed to produce positive results? Do the instruments elicit the information needed or are we still unsure of the effectiveness of the activity even after the evaluation? These are some of the many problematic questions faced in evaluating in-service education.

The purpose of this presentation is to examine the reasons for conducting in-service training activities and how those reasons relate to evaluation; to discuss some problems associated with doing in-service evaluation; and to suggest some guidelines which may help in overcoming some of these problems.

Reasons for Conducting and Evaluating In-Service

Effectiveness of any in-service activity can be accurately determined only if the reasons for holding the activity are clear. Thus, if the purpose of the in-service is to introduce a new skill, as is often the case, an evaluation process which measures attitude change is inappropriate. Such an evaluation may show that the in-service has not been successful when, in fact, the objective (developing a new skill) has been met. Too often, we measure the wrong thing. Perhaps we conduct in-service for the wrong reasons. In any case, it is crucial that the purpose of in-service be clear before any attempt is made to design or choose an evaluation process.

Knox, et. al. (1974, p. 24) have developed criteria which suggests the various purposes in-service can serve in an Adult Basic Education setting. Their criteria can be adopted for in-service education settings other than ABE. Thus in-service can:

- improve attitudes
- provide new concepts
- introduce new skills
- help instructors find methods to better organize their instruction
- help instructors respond to student needs
- help teachers select and adapt instructions
- introduce new methods and materials
- provide increased insight
- improve morale and receptivity to future training.

Optimally, the purpose of in-service activities become the reason for doing the evaluation.

The question "why evaluate" is not always easily answered. Sometimes an evaluation is conducted because it is mandated by the funding agency or because it is seen as the final step in a prescribed program planning process. Sometimes we do it because we think we should. The reasons for doing an evaluation must go beyond this if the results are to be meaningful and contribute to improved in-service education as well as becoming a teaching/learning function for participants.

Scriven (1974) provides a noteworthy rationale which, with minor changes, can serve as a basis to clarify some of the reasons for doing in-service evaluation. He states that evaluation can be used:

1) to contribute to decisions about the continuation, expansion, or completion of in-service activities.
   Was the in-service effective? Did it accomplish its goals? Should a similar activity be conducted in the future? Has the activity created an interest or need for further in-service activities?
2) to contribute to decisions about in-service activity modification. How could this activity be improved? What were the specific strengths/weaknesses of the in-service?
3) to obtain evidence favoring the continuation of in-service activities--to rally support. Although often unstated, this is a valid reason for doing an evaluation. In other words, can the evaluation results be used in such a manner that is supportive tc continued in-service.
4) to contribute to the understanding of basic processes. The educational, psychological, sociological and methodological impacts are evaluated.

In summary, in-service activities should be planned for specific reasons. Also, evaluation should be done for specific reasons. Doing the reasons and purposes in congruence is critical to the avoidance of major problems.

Problems in Measuring In-Service Evaluations

In-service education has been evaluated for "effectiveness" using many different approaches and tools. Houle (1980, pp. 238-252) developed a useful conceptual framework which categorizes these various approaches. He argues that at least four major bases of evaluation exist. The strengths and weaknesses of each approach are discussed below.

1) Extent of participation. This is the simplist measure of in-service activity. It simply requires a count of the number of hours participants are involved. The assumption is that education is inherently good and that by sheer attendance alone an individual demonstrates motivation and therefore learning. In-service activities themselves are evaluated by the number of participants attending the activity. Thus the activity may be deemed a "success" if 20 participants attend--better still if 30 attend.

The problem with this type of approach, of course, is that it does not measure if learning has taken place.

2) Extent of learner satisfaction. This approach places the emphasis of evaluation on the quality of a particular program instead of the learner. Further, the assumption is made that learners are able to judge quality. A common measure, the so called "happiness index" falls into this category.

The problem with this approach is that satisfaction may have more to do with comfort, style of presentation and participants' states of mind than with learning. In an unusual experiment, Naftulin, Ware and Donnelly (1973) demonstrated the "importance" of style when they hired a professional actor to give a lecture to a group of mature, experienced practitioners. Despite being coached to present his topic ". . . with an excessive use of double talk, neologisms, non sequitors, and contradicting statements . . . (p. 631)," the fictitious Dr. Fox's presentation was overwhelmingly rated positively by the participants.

While one should not totally dismiss learner satisfaction as an evaluation procedure, it is important to note that participants vary in learning style and an uncritical acceptance of their judgment may not be warranted.

3) Accomplishment of a learning plan. This process integrates measurement of objectives into the learning design. Goals are stated so that they can be readily evaluated. A pretest may be given. During the learning activity these goals may be adjusted. At the end of the in-service the knowledge, skill, or attitudinal change of the participants is measured.

Although more sophisticated in design and intent than the previous approaches, this approach also suffers from several weaknesses. For one thing, a competency or mastery approach does not measure learning which is not included in the goals. For another, competency cannot always be equated with performance. And lastly, many in-service activities (such as those which use the mode of inquiry approach) cannot be evaluated by a pre-determined plan.

4) Measurement of performance. This is the most sophisticated approach proffered so far. It attempts to measure not just learning, but the impact of learning on job performance. Unfortunately, this approach is the most difficult, time consuming and expensive evaluation procedure developed. Some educators confess that if they evaluated programs this way they would never have time to plan the programs themselves.

Performance-based evaluation procedures often do not take into account that there are many intervening variables beyond the control of the evaluator (such as administrative support or lack of support), which mitigate against developing a link between learning and performance. Nevertheless it remains the most promising, if least used, evaluation approach.

It is clear from the above that all evaluation approaches have their weaknesses. There is no one best approach for every occasion. However by understanding the strengths and weaknesses of each approach an evaluator should be able to easily determine not only which evaluation

approach to use, but more fundamentally, whether or not evaluation is even necessary in the first place.

Despite these limitations, a philosophical perspective toward evaluation of in-service activities yields broad but pertinent guidelines. The following section stands as such:

An Adult Education Perspective Towards Evaluating In-Service

The authors believe that any evaluation process in adult education should be consistent with the principles of adult education. Thus the evaluation process should not just be a means to gather information, make decisions, or assess progress. Rather, it should focus, in a non-threatening way, on encouraging participants to rediagnose their learning needs, resulting in a new participant developed plan of learning. In this way evaluation is not ever a punitive administrative tool, but is a subtle way of assessing learning needs.

Jones and Lowe (1982), in a paper concerned with evaluating ABE teacher effectiveness, suggest a framework which takes into account the perspective outlined above. They argue that administrators who insist that their teachers treat students in a manner consistent with the principles of adult education, must treat their teachers in the same manner. Thus, evaluation of in-service activities must serve a teaching/learning function which challenges participants to reexamine their own goals and methods and make adjustments that they consider appropriate.

While this perspective may appear simple, too often evaluation is useful only to those conducting the in-service. An adult education perspective towards evaluating in-service would embrace such themes as setting a learning climate, voluntary participation and remaining alert to not only intended consequences but also ". . . unintended but anticipated consequences and unintended, unanticipated consequences . . . (Farmer, 1979, p. 10).

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CHARACTERISTICS AND PROBLEMS OF ADULT STUDENTS RETURNING TO HIGHER EDUCATION

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Characteristics and Problems of Adult Students Returning to Higher Education

The last decade has witnessed a dramatic increase in the number of adult students returning to university and college campuses. Jerold Apps characterizes this movement as a 'quiet revolution,' less promounced but reminiscient of the period following World War II when veterans flooded campuses across the country, trading the G.I. Bill of Rights for college degrees. Recent national surveys indicate that almost 40% of all courses taken by adults on a part-time basis are conducted on two and four-year campuses. Many students are returning adults-aged 25 years and older. For example, enrollment data for the 1981/82 school year at the University of Wisconsin-Madison indicates that 30% of the 41,000-plus students were 25 years of age and older. Adults are returning to higher education on a full and part-time basis in increasing numbers. However, as in the latter 1940's university and college campuses are not prepared for this influx of older students. Campus administrators and instructors are now asking serious questions about this new population and are in need of information that can help them make decisions consistent with the needs of the returning adult student.

Numerous studies have been done on adult participation in a variety of educational settings, but few have been directed toward those adults returning to higher education. Previous work in this area has focused on women students and their reasons for returning to school (7,8) familial support and conflict problems (6), and the importance of spouse support (10). Studies have also been conducted on the reasons adults return to higher education (5), and the decisions that may 'trigger' an adult's return to school (2). These investigations have focused almost entirely on undergraduate students and have been limited to the observance of one or two "perceived barriers to learning" at any one time. In addition, very little research has been conducted into the preferred learning styles of returning adult students. Therefore, a four-year study was initiated in the Fall of 1980 to identify characteristics and barriers adult students encounter upon their return to school.

A sample of 73 subjects was selected from newly enrolled U.W.-Madison graduate students in the School of Education and the College of Agriculture and Life Sciences over a three semester period. The sample was stratified on the following characteristics: 1) 25 years of age and older; 2) U.S. citizens; and 3) three years between previous and current college course enrollments. Data was collected in a structured interview setting using 14 open-ended questions and a battery of four questionnaires. Questionnaires included a biographical assessment, a 25-item 'problems' assessment instrument, Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale, and Canfield's Learning Styles Inventory. Each interview was tape-recorded following the subject's completion of the questionnaire battery. The time spent with each subject averaged 55 minutes.

The biographical assessment was designed to collect descriptive data such as age, gender, maritial/partner status, employment status, etc. The

problems assessment instrument asked subjects to numerically rate each of 25 'perceived barrier' statements on a 4-point Likert-type scale as to their severity. Barrier statements were drawn from previous work done by Apps (1), and reflect what Cross has described as the three "perceived barriers to learning": situational, institutional and dispositional (Cross, 1981). Situational barriers include problems with travel to and from campus, balancing job/family/school time, etc. Institutional barriers include items such as registration procedures, library access and parking. Dispositional barriers include such things as stress, acceptance by younger students and childrens' acceptance of a return to school.

The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (r=.85), is a 10-item instrument using a 4-point Likert scale (11). Although no construct validity has been reported, the ten items tend to focus on four main areas: 1) self-esteem in reference to others; 2) self-esteem in reference to self; 3) self-satisfaction, and 4) self-regard. The scale is one of the most widely used and is brief, easy to complete and has a question sequence that avoids respondent set activity. Scale responses were reversed in order to make the direction consistent with the other instruments. Self-esteem was considered a dispositional barrier variable in this study.

Canfield's Learning Style Inventory was used to assess preferred learning styles (Canfield, 1976). The LSI is a 30-item assessment using a 4-point rank order procedure for each item. The instrument generates a total of 21 variables, grouped into four major areas: preferred conditions, content, modes and expectancy (performance). Conditions variables include a preference for the following: peer affiliation and instructor affiliation; organization and detailed structure; independence and setting one's own goals; and, authority and competition. Content variables include preferences for numerics, language (writing, discussion), objects (working with things versus people), and people (interviewing, counseling). Mode variables are comprised of preferences for listening, reading, iconics (audio-visuals) and direct, hands-on experience. The remaining five variables are additive and generate a single expected performance (class grade) score. Variable reliabilities range from r= .96 to.99, and face validity of the instrument has been determined using over 3,000 adult subjects. Scores for individual variances have also been norm-referenced for male and female adult students. As a result, strength of preference can also be measured using a five-point Likert Scale, ranging from a very low preference to a very strong preference. Scale ratings were reversed in order to facilitate data handling.

The open-ended interview questions were designed to assess respondent attitudes toward the institution, the reasons for returning, studying and student life, teaching and learning, personal health, and family relationships. The questions attempted to qualitatively assess each subject's perceived barriers to learning as well as attitudes about learning style preferences.

The sample of students consisted of 25 males and 48 females with an average age of 32.4 years. Twenty-one students were enrolled in the College of Agricluture, 52 in the School of Education. Forty-six respondents were married (30 had at least one child), 17 had never been married and 11 were divorced or separated. Thirty were employed full-time, 34 part-time and 14 were unemployed at the time of the study. Three people had taken a one-year

leave of absence to attend school. Most students were entering their graduate degree programs with a Bachelor's degree (n = 36), while 34 had some master's work before entering. Three subjects reported some Ph.D, work. The majority (53%) were full-time students, taking 9 or more semester credits. The remainder were part-time students (47%). The median length of time out of school was 5.1 years, the majority having been out 3 to 5 years. One individual reported being out of school 22 years, another 27 years.

Open-ended interview data revealed that almost all of the adult students interviewed (95%) returned to the university to broaden existing careers or expand into new ones. Response categories parallel those reported by Apps and others (1). In response to the question, "What are your expectations of a college class instructor?", most students indicated that they expected teachers to be 'content experts', well organized and proficient at whatever method they attempted to employ. One student stated it this way: "He should be basically knowledgeable in the area. I don't care whether he's that personable, I don't feel like I need a personal relationship. . . I feel like I'm here as a consumer, for my own benefit. . . We're here for business and that's that. I think research is important, but if you're going to teach, thats how you're earning your bread and butter, you damn well better know how to do it." Most respondents, especially married students, indicated that they had problems balancing job/family/school time. Respondents often referred to it as "a problem of juggling schedules," evidenced from this student's testimony of a typical day: "Today I have my class. I get to work at 8:00 and work until 4:15, then I rush down here (campus) and try and find a place to park. I'm here until 7:00 pm. I have a parent committee meeting until 10:00. . . It isn't the best situation, but that was the only way to do it (take the class)." Students also indicated they had problems finding blocks of study time, concentrating and dealing with anxiety over timed-tests. Increased levels of stress were common. Married students attributed strains in their relationships to lifestyle changes and shifting partner roles.

Examination of 'problem' assessment instrument data revealed that 60% of all respondents considered job/family/school time at least somewhat of a problem, which tends to support the interview data. The majority of students (67%) indicated that increased stress was at least somewhat of a problem; ten students rated it as serious to very serious. Most adult students did not consider acceptance by younger students to be a problem (85% indicated no problem), and 67% of all married students indicated that spouse acceptance of the return to school was no problem.

A majority of students (53%) indicated a strong or very strong preference for establishing their own learning goals within the classroom. Regression analysis indicates that the preference for self-determined learning goals variable was positively correlated with a preference for peer affiliation ($r = .6035$, $p<.005$), detail ($r = .4965$, $p<.005$), and a preference for competition ($r = .4334$ $p<.005$). It would appear that students who prefer to set their own goals do not prefer classroom environments with teacher-authorized structures. However, they do prefer to meet and work with their classmates.

One way analysis of variance revealed significant differences between males and females in learning style preferences. Females indicated a significantly higher preference for using language in learning ($F=8.932$, $(1,70)$, $p<.05$) and a significantly lower preference for working with objects (things as opposed to people) ($F=14.781$, $(1,70)$, $p<.05$). Males also reported significantly higher expectancy scores than females ($F=4.921$, $(1,70)$. $p<.05$), indicating they expected to earn higher grades. These findings do not replicate those reported by Canfield and others for adult students in community college settings (9). One way ANOVA tests also revealed that students with M.S. degrees or better had significantly higher preferences for authority (eminating from the class instructor) than did students without M.S. degrees. ($F=3.959$, $(2,72)$, $p<.05$).

Total self-esteem of returning students ($Me=32.7$) was higher than that reported in previous studies (10). A median split technique was employed to facilitate analysis. Persons scoring below the median were considered to have lower self-esteem ($n = 33$), and persons above the median were considered to have higher self-esteem ($n = 37$). Analysis indicates that students who reported that they had problems with study skills upon their return to school did have low self-esteem (35.3%). Conversely, those without problems had higher self esteem (33.8%), ($\chi^2 = 8.82$, $p < .05$, phi = .3892). Thus, self-esteem is related to perceptions of skills needed in the classroom.

In sum, returning adult students do want to set their own learning goals independent from the instructor. However, interview data indicates that students value the role of the teacher as content expert and climate setter. This does have implications for the role of isntructors in traditional classroom settings as returning adults demand more automony and control over teaching-learning interactions.

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ADULT STUDENTS: WHAT "TRIGGERS" COLLEGE ENROLLMENT?

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ADULT STUDENTS: WHAT "TRIGGERS" COLLEGE ENROLLMENT?

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At least thirty major studies have been conducted during the last decade to gather information regarding the characteristics, needs and goals of the adult learner (Cross, 1980). There have also been numerous investigations of the barriers to participation and the educational objectives of adult students.

Characteristics of the adult learner have been studied extensively to determine who participates in various types of learning. In general, these studies have found that the single best predictor of participation in learning activities is prior level of educational attainment (Anderson and Darkenwald, 1979 and Cross, 1978). Moreover, several surveys have identified demographic variables that profile the type of adult likely to enroll in college: young (25-34), high income, living in an urban area, employment in business and professions, to name a few descriptive factors. Investigations of the educational goals and objectives of adult students (e.g. National Center for Education Statistics, 1972, 1975) typically reveal the importance of career goals (to attain specific skills that will be useful on the job or to develop a new career) and self-fulfillment goals (to complete a degree). However, as pointed out in one recent study (Hendrickson, 1979), the barriers, goals, and demographic characteristics of adults enrolled in college are not significiantly different from "interested" adult non-students. Therefore, if these variables are the same for both groups then the question becomes: Out of the large number of potential adult learners, what triggers some of them to enroll in a degree program while others remain "potential" students?

Major Objectives of the Present Study. The present study was designed to address three major issues: (1) What triggers adults to enter or reenter a bachelor's degree program? (2) Do triggering events vary with an individual's goals, specific demographic variables or other life circumstances? (3) Is there a relationship between barriers to education and triggering events?

METHOD

A sample of 1343 adult, degree-seeking students from six campuses of the University of Wisconsin System were selected for participation in the study. "Adult degree-seeking student" was defined as a matriculated student 25 years of age or older as of the first day of the Fall, 1981 semester. All

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data were collected through the use of a mailed questionnaire which gathered relevant demographic information as well as information regarding perceived barriers, educational goals and the catalyst or event which directly triggered the respondent's return to school. Of the original 1343 adult students surveyed, 1025 returned a completed questionnaire for an overall response rate of 76%. However, 119 surveys were subsequently eliminated when respondents did not meet the criteria of "adult degree seeking student," leaving 906 questionnaires for inclusion in the study.

RESULTS

Demographic and Educational Characteristics. Analysis of the survey results indicates that nearly three-fourths (72%) of the adult degree-seeking students are between 25 and 34 years of age. Two-thirds (61%) are married and 62% have children, including 46% who have school-age children. In addition to their family responsibilities, two-thirds of the students are employed outside the home. Forty-three percent are employed full time and 23% part time. Professional, technical, clerical and sales occupations account for approximately 70% of the job titles listed by respondents.

Responses to questionnaire items regarding educational background and present college status revealed that nearly two-thirds (66%) of the entire group had attended college prior to their current period of enrollment. Forty-nine percent had attended college within three years after high school graduation while one-fourth (26%) waited ten years or more before enrolling in a college or university.

In spite of the high percentage of adults who had attended college in the past, we found that approximately two-thirds (62%) were underclassmen and only one in five had senior standing. Finally, the prevailing impression that most adults are attending college part time was confirmed by the fact that 65% of the respondents were taking eleven or fewer semester credits at the time of the survey.

Barriers to Earlier Enrollment. Results of the survey indicate that situations or events which include job and family responsibilities deterred the largest number of adult students from completing their degree. Lack of interest and the availability of funds also prevented a significant number of adults from completing a college degree earlier. Family responsibilities emerged as the major problem for women while job responsibilities and lack of interest were more frequently cited as a problem for men. For adult students between the ages of 25 and 34, no single factor emerged as "the" reason for delay; however, taken together, nearly two-thirds of the respondents checked job and family responsibilities and lack of interest as the major barrier. Among students 35 years and older, family responsibilities clearly emerged as the major reason for not enrolling in college earlier. Finally, present employment status does not appear to significantly influence the perceived barriers to education with the obvious exception of homemakers who were more likely to view family responsibilities as a barrier while job responsibilities were less likely to be seen as an important factor.

Why do Adults Pursue a College Degree? The picture that emerges from the survey results is that adult students by and large are seeking a degree to

improve and expand their career opportunities. Although other, more socially acceptable, "learning-oriented" motivations for seeking a degree are also deemed very important by the matriculated adult. When asked to state their primary reason for seeking a degree, nearly three-fourths indicate that they either want to get a new job, achieve independence or advance in their present career.

Crosstabulation of goals by sex, age and employment status indicates that whereas women, the young and the unemployed are primarily interested in developing a new career and achieving a sense of identity, men, older women and those who are employed full time usually become degree seekers in order to advance in their present careers or may participate for other learning-oriented reasons such as learning for the sake of learning or to get the satisfication which comes from having a degree.

Triggers to Adult Participation in College Degree Programs. Approximately one in four adult students (27%) cited "job dissatisfaction" as the most important trigger in their decision to enroll in a college degree program. Four additional factors were considered most important by at least 10% of the entire group including (1) received encouragement from family, friends, etc. (12%), (2) funds became available (11%), (3) children entered school (11%), and (4) a realization that a college degree was necessary to achieve a personal goal (10%). Additional triggering events such as obtaining information and family or marital problems were considered most important by 6% and 7% of the total group. Loss of job, moving to the community and serious illness were mentioned by 3% of the survey respondents.

Women were more likely than men to feel that children entering school, family or marital problems and the availability of funds were very much a factor in their decision to enroll in college. Younger adults (25-34 years of age) were more likely to view job dissatisfaction as a trigger while a higher percentage of older adults (35+ years old) considered obtaining information and children entering school as very important factors. Finally, job dissatisfaction, encouragement and the availability of funds are the three most frequently mentioned triggering events regardless of the employment status of respondents. The only exception to this general finding was among homemakers who most often cited "children entered school" as the most important trigger.

Summary and Conclusions. Although a concerted effort was made to limit the scope of the study and the type of adult learner surveyed, analysis of the data still proved to be difficult. Adult degree seekers, like adult learners in general, enter or reenter college degree programs with the full range of job and family responsibilities. Their previous postsecondary educational experiences have also varied, along with the reasons they give for not finishing college earlier. Their reasons for returning range from wanting contact with people to getting a new job, and, not surpisingly, the catalyst or event which triggered their return also varied considerably for the adult student.

IMPLICATIONS

From the early stages of the project a major goal has been to use the infor-

mation obtained from the study to formulate some general guidelines for policy and practice. The guidelines are based primarily on the data collected; however, specific details are also based on information gathered through other projects conducted by the Wisconsin Assessment Center including consultation with individuals who provide information and counseling to adult students who may have already implemented some of the procedures discussed below. The suggestions are offered with the realization that any policy decisision regarding the adult student must be made within the context of a particular institution including the availability of funds and other resources. Moreover, none of the statements are offered with a "money-back guarantee" and certainly none are expected to attract or retain vast numbers of adult students. They are merely offered with the hope that adult students can be better served.

1. New programs and services for adult students should be based on identified needs. Once this is accomplished, an institution should articulate what services it must provide and can provide the adult student. Specific steps can then be taken to offer services to the largest number of adults. Specifically, the adult student may find the following services useful: (1) career and educational counseling; (2) placement services; (3) personal/family counseling; (4) day care/evening care; (5) assessment of prior learning; and (6) evening hours for counseling and registration.

2. Career planning should be offered to prospective adult students. In addition to making occupational interest inventories available to interested adults, the prospective student could be provided with counseling and other assistance regarding: (1) possible career options; (2) degree alternatives; (3) cost and expense information; (4) occupational outlook information; (5) licensing/certification requirements; (6) complete admissions requirements and procedures; and (7) an orientation to the college or university, particularly any degree requirements which must be met by all students.

3. Institutions should make a concerted effort to enlist the support of business and community organizations. Institutional support from these groups can enhance the reputation of the college or university, increase credibility and improve communication flow. Many employers may also provide the additional encouragement (psychological and financial) needed to trigger a return to school. Internal polling of these organizations could also be used to help determine whether particular degrees or certificates would be of interest and may open the doors to more flexible class schedules and locations.

4. The avialability of programs, class schedules and other special services should be extensively advertised. Advertisement, free of university jargon, should be targeted to certain groups, particularly to those who already have had some college, women whose children are in school, men between 25-34 and women over 35. The job or career benefits of obtaining a degree should also be emphasized.

5. Former graduates and students currently enrolled could be used as promoters of specific programs for the institution. Individuals selected should truly represent the students being served and not just the "stars" of a particular institution. An effort should be made to select students who

would provide a number of different role models for men and women, married, divorced and single persons, with and without children, full-time workers, part-time workers and dedicated homemakers.

6. Finally, institutions should strive as much as possible to offer courses during evening hours and on weekends. It appears to be particularly important to make it possible for an adult student to actually get a degree by taking only evening or weekend courses. A particular institution could offer either a liberal studies or liberal arts degree or might want to make it possible to complete a specialized major by taking evening or weekend courses (e.g. a BSN, business, computer science, engineering, etc.).

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A DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF ALCOHOLISM EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN THE STATE OF TEXAS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

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A Descriptive Analysis of Alcoholism Education Programs in the State of Texas and Implications for Practice

Introduction

Chemical abuse has become a significant social problem in American society today. Both the popular and scholarly presses are reporting growing incidences of use of drugs, alcohol and chemical inhalents among an ever increasing number of adults and children. Because of this situation social service agencies, local, state and federal government organizations, church groups, members of the private sector and colleges and universities have instituted various types of intervention activities and programs.

The study reported in this paper was undertaken to ascertain the scope and extent of alcoholism education programs existing in colleges and universities in Texas. At the time of the research there was no comprehensive data base which could be utilized by funding agencies and potential users of alcoholism education services in the state. Thus what appears in the subsequent portions of this paper is a description of the background, institutional setting and purpose of this research; a summary of findings from this study; and a set of summary recommendations and conclusions which are designed to aid the reader and practitioner in utilizing the findings of this analysis in practice.

Background and Purpose of the Study

The purposes of this study were fourfold. First, it was designed to provide a descriptive analysis by program type, sponsoring unit, extent of curriculum, nature of program support and institutional funding base, and programmatic history for all alcoholism education programs found in colleges and universities in Texas. Secondly, the data resulting from this research were utilized as a basis upon which future administrative decisions concerning the sponsoring institution's own long-term credit-free alcoholism education program would be made (Spikes and Bush, 1978). In a tertiary sense this study was designed to gather data which would ultimately lead to improving adult education practice through better meeting the unmet needs of providers and potential providers of alcoholism education and intervention services in Texas. Finally, the data resulting from this study were also utilized by state agencies in developing local, regional and statewide training programs for various practitioners throughout the state (Ellis and Aguinaga, 1981).

This research was conducted by the Division of Continuing Studies of St. Mary's University with the sponsorship of the Texas Commission on Alcoholism. Data were collected between November 1980 and January 1981 with subsequent analysis and publication of the results being made later that year.

Data Collection

Personnel of the Division of Continuing Studies in concert with members of the statewide Texas Commision on Alcoholism Manpower Advisory Committee developed a thirteen item instrument for use in this study. It was designed to obtain information from the respondents pertaining to the following variables: Institutional Descriptors-including type of institution, departmental sponsorship, program chairperson and other demographic variables; Course Type including credit or non-credit nature, hours or C.E.U's awarded and extent of present program or desired level of expansion; Professional Sponsorship/Approval or Recognition; Curricular Focus- including specific areas of management and planning, treatment and rehabilitation and counseling related skills encompassed by the program; and Job Placement Availability (Note 1).

Based upon information provided to the investigators by the Texas College and University System Coordinating Board, a population of 154 junior and senior institutions was identified for participation in this study. From an analysis of the curriculums of these institutions,541 data collection instruments were mailed to potential respondents. It was felt that because of the size and complexity of many of the 154 institutions more than one program dealing with alcoholism education could exist on a single campus. In order to reach and elicite responses from such multiple program sponsors, some institutions in the population received more than one instrument.

Subsequent to the deadline for receiving responses established by the investigators each non-responding institution was contacted by telephone for follow up. This process was repeated a second time in the case of those programs sponsors which did not respond to the first mailed inquiry or the first follow-up call.

As a result of this process , data from 86 percent or 133 of the 154 sponsoring institutions identified in the initial portion of the study. Of the 541 potential program sponsors 41 percent or 221 programs were represented in the final data collected in this study.

Findings

For purposes of this paper the results of this study will not be reported in detail (Note 2). Rather,a summary of the findings will be presented in the following section of this text.

When analyzed by type of institutional sponsorship, data resulting from this study indicated an equal balance between junior and senior institutions providing alcoholism-related course work.The distinction here however was one more of scope than sponsorship. Respondents from senior level institutions, defined in this study as four year degree-granting public or private institutions or institutions that awarded a Bachelors Degree or greater, tended to have a far greater variety of programs on a single campus than did the responding junior colleges. In the former instances it was found that nearly all of the senior

institutions provided some type of formal course work that dealt in part or in whole with alcoholism education issues. Typically however, these educational offerings consisted of a random course offered on an elective basis by a department of sociology or psychology. Generally these courses were offered at the graduate level. Little evidence was found concerning the availability of alcoholism education programs on the undergradute level or as majors or complete degree programs on either the undergraduate or graduate level.

Conversely, the respondents from junior level institutions tended to be most active in the non-credit and continuing education unit areas with a wide range of programmatic offerings being provided. Few comprehensive programs of a long-term nature were found to exist in a non-credit format at either the junior or senior college or university level.

When analyzed by geographical area of sponsoring institution, the data tended to indicate that a majority of alcoholism education coursework was sponsored by institutions in the three major metropolitan areas of Texas, San Antonio, Houston and the Dallas Fort-Worth metropolitan area. Few program providers were, in comparison to the vast geographical area of the state, were located in rural or semi-rural areas. West Texas and the Rio Grande Valley were not shown by the results of this study as being served by any institution of higher education in regard to alcoholism education programs.

When analyzed by type of program curricula, responding institutions programs tended to be focused upon skill development in the counseling and intervention area rather than in regard to program management and administration. Similarly, most of the respondents had made some effort to received approval for all or part of their educational program from some professional association. Typically such approval and certification was received from the Texas Association of Alcoholism Counselors, the group within the state which establishes and monitors the certification process for alcoholism counselors.

Most of the programs identified by this study were funded by the sponsoring institution rather than through external support. This was nearly universally true with respect to graduate level programs. Alcoholism education courses offered by institutions at either the junior or senior level for continuing education unit credit or on a non-credit basis were generally supported by participant fees and some external funds in the form of grants or contracts

Implications and Recommendations for Practice

Several implications for practice can be drawn as a result of the data collected from this research. Among these are:

1) Practitioners desiring to replicate this type of study, regardless of the content area being investigated, should work closely with an advisory group to develop and refine the data collection instrument. This study and the extent to which it met its objective was directly related to the ammount of time and effort that was spent by the investigator working with the external advisory group in refining the data

collection and instrument development processes.

2) Prior to making adminstrative decisions concerning new program development, program termination or program revision, practitioners must conduct effective research of this type to determine the nature and extent of similar educational programs and their distribution within the institutions service region.

3) Educators desiring to implement alcoholism education programs should carefully examine the educational needs of the potential user population. As a result of this study it was found that a need existed for training personnel working in alcoholism agencies in areas related to agency management and adminstration. Little evidence was found that this problem was being addressed.

4) If the State of Texas is representative in terms of programmatic distribution, it appears that there is a great need to provide alcoholism education services for professionals in rural or semi-rural areas. Practitioners desiring to develop such programs should consider focussing their activities in serving persons living in these areas.

5) Efforts should be made to develop a more comprehensive approach to the delivery of alcoholism education programs. Data resulting from this study tend to indicate that there is both too little coordination taking place between sponsoring units of large university campuses as well as too much replication of service existing in some highly urbanized areas.

6) Practitioners should work closely with the appropriate credentialing body during the progam development process to assure that necessary criteria for program approval are met by the resultant educational activity.

7) Ongoing research of this type must be conducted by continuing education personnel in order to maintain and revise educational programs which are both responsive to and reflective of the learning needs of the populations to be served.

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2. Ellis, Joan M. and Aguinaga, Monica F. A statewide study of alcoholism education programs in texas. Unplublished report, San Antonio, Texas, 1981 (Note 3).

NOTES

1. A copy of the instrument utilized in this study can be obtained from the author of this paper at the address listed on the cover sheet.

2. Further detailed results of this research can also be obtained from the the author.

3. A copy of this report may also be obtained from the author.

IMPLICATIONS OF EVALUABILITY FOR IMPROVING ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAMS

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IMPLICATIONS OF EVALUABILITY FOR IMPROVING ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAMS

This concept paper presents some adult education implications of two terms currently used in evaluation, evaluability and impact.

Evaluability is the process of examining a program after completion to determine if activity was sufficient to generate measurable results.

Impact is "the width and depth of the dent left by a force", with width meaning the number of people reached, and depth meaning the amount of effect upon those people.

Two of the most common yardsticks for examining depth are:

> Learning Yardstick--degree of internalization and use. The taxonomies of educational objectives identify several point scales. For example, the units on the cognitive domain scale range from simple recall through application to use in synthesis and evaluation.
>
> Life Effects Yardstick--degree to which information is used in life situations. Units range from mastering content through practice adoption/action taken to effects of, and ultimate value from, that action.

Note the word left in the definition. We are concerned that the dent remain, e.g., that learning stay with the individual.

Impact Aspects to Be Examined in Evaluability.

In order to apply evaluability assessment in looking at program impact one must be able to clearly and precisely define three elements:

1. the force--the specific nature of the programs which exert pressure and thus are apt to cause a dent.
2. the width and depth of the impression left.
3. conditions affecting the force and impression.
   For example, in the physical metaphor, the dent is affected by the rigidity of the surface and the temperature. Conditions/characteristics of the learner, and learner's life situation affect the impression left by education.

Some factors to be examined in describing/defining are given in the worksheets in the last three pages.

Steps in Examining the Potential for Impact

The basic steps of evaluability--examining potential for measuring impact--include:

1. describing the force, expected impact, and conditions affecting impact of the specific program.
2. relating force to conditions and determining the extent to which measurable impact is likely to occur.
3. deciding whether impact can be measured.

Integration Rather Than Separation

Too often evaluation is seen as the final step in education with inputs and process taken as givens and not described or studied. Evaluability concerns itself with the relationship between the program and results.

The concept of evaluability brings all four parts of the CIPP evaluation model into play at once - how the INPUT and PROCESS deal with CONTEXT (conditions) in bringing about an educational PRODUCT.

Implications for Improving Adult Education Programs

The practice of evaluability offers two major kinds of implications for improving adult education programs.

1. Improvement of planning and designing specific programs. The wise adult educator will do a pre-evaluablity assessment of plans/designs to be sure that the design is adequate. A sharpened focus and greater concentration of limited resources will occur.

   Teachers and curriculum specialists will deal with questions like the following as they design specific lessons and courses: what constitutes sufficient force in this situation? how can conditions within the learner and life situations affecting the amount of program power needed to produce impact be dealt with?

2. Greater practitioner understanding through reviewing the actual program as it occurred and comparing it with the plan.

3. A better knowledge base to draw on. Evaluators will need to be able to defend a decision that it is unlikely that measurable results have occurred. Thus there will be greater use of previous evaluations as well as pressure for research to set reasonable bases of expectations from specific amounts and kinds of educational programming.

   Track records will be built which indicate what results can be expected from specific forces under specific conditions and thus we will come to know a good deal more about the nature of the educational force needed to generate depth and/or width in effects.

   We will learn a good deal more about what creates program force. For example, are the factors listed in the checksheets that follow the key factors? Which are most important?

Evaluability assessment will be important to evaluators in that it will save them from wasteful efforts. It will be important to program personnel and learners in that more effective programs will result. The concern of evaluators is whether or not the program has generated sufficient force for the conditions. The concern of educators is whether or not the program as planned will generate sufficient force to make an impressive dent.

CHECKSHEET FOR EXAMINING "FORCE" OF A PROGRAM

(Illustrative rather than either exhaustive or final. Criteria used in this type of sheet need to be those most apt to produce impact.).

This kind of examination is best done if a good audio or videotape record is made. It is difficult to catch all of the details as a participant observer.

1. Were any units identified in the original plan deleted ? If so, which were they? _____

2. Were any significant items for learning added which were not in the plan?

_____

3. How much attention was given to each learning segment?
   Column A List the major items to be learned in the column at the left.
   Column B Indicate actual amount of time learner in contact with item.
   Column C Rate extent to which average participant was actively involved with item. (Had to do something--think, talk, write, etc.)

A	B	C	Low				High
_____	_____		1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____		1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____		1	2	3	4	5

4. Circle those learning units which appeared to receive too little attention (time/active involvement or both) to produce lasting results.

5. Circle the ratings of the learning items where the activity did not appear to be appropriate to the learning need--i.e., just busy work rather than really effective.

6. List the objectives of the program. Look back at the learning segments/units listed above. Rate each objective in terms of whether or not there was adequate attention (time/interaction and adequate content) for the objective to have been achieved with these participants.

Objectives	Low				High
_____	1	2	3	4	5
_____	1	2	3	4	5
_____	1	2	3	4	5

7. Rate the program as to general level of the following:

--learners could all see and hear	1	2	3	4	5
--content was at the right level	1	2	3	4	5
--sharp, clear focus on key learnings	1	2	3	4	5

8. To what extent did the program/teacher use the following factors to increase student interaction with learning?

	Low				High
--interest getting and holding techniques	1	2	3	4	5
--questions to stimulate thinking	1	2	3	4	5
--dynamic or dramatic presentation	1	2	3	4	5
--aiding with needs expressed by students	1	2	3	4	5
--all necessary information present	1	2	3	4	5
--comfortable social learning environment	1	2	3	4	5

CHECKSHEET FOR EXAMINING CONDITIONS APT TO AFFECT THE IMPACT OF A PROGRAM
(Illustrative rather than exhaustive or final.)

Look for factors affecting how these specific learners will be effected by this program.

1. Describe the learners (age, occupation, educational level, etc.)

---

2. Are there any characteristics of that which is to be learned which would require special force on the part of the program? For example,

	Low				High
a. How complex is it?	1	2	3	4	5
b. How long will it take to become proficient?	1	2	3	4	5
c. How much jargon?	1	2	3	4	5
d. How much informational background is required?	1	2	3	4	5
e. How much basic skill is required?	1	2	3	4	5
f. How long does it take to do/apply	1	2	3	4	5
g. How controversial is it apt to be?	1	2	3	4	5

3. Are there any intellectual/emotional factors which would require special force on the part of the program? For example,

a. How difficult is it for these specific learners?	1	2	3	4	5
b. How interested is the learner in this subject?	1	2	3	4	5
c. How important does the learner feel it is?	1	2	3	4	5
d. How much benefit can the learner secure from this learning?	1	2	3	4	5

4. Are there any situational factors which would effect the force needed for the program to have maximum impact?

a. To what extent is the learner here because he/she wants to be?	1	2	3	4	5
b. To what extent did an urgent problem initate this program?	1	2	3	4	5
c. How easy will it be to use this information after class?	1	2	3	4	5
d. To what extent will people close to the learner support the use of the new learning?	1	2	3	4	5

5. To what extent are the following general characteristics of the learners apt to affect the force needed for the program to have maximum impact?

a. level of confidence in ability to learn	1	2	3	4	5
b. prior level of education	1	2	3	4	5
c. occupation	1	2	3	4	5
d. social skills	1	2	3	4	5
e. intellectual processes	1	2	3	4	5
f. dexterity, physical skill	1	2	3	4	5

6. In summary, to what extent will the impact of this learning be affected by conditions like those listed above? __little ___ some ___ alot

7. To what extent have the effects of these conditions been adequately taken into consideration in the program?___not ___somewhat ___very well

CHECKSHEET FOR EXAMINING EXPECTED IMPACT OF THE PROGRAM
(Illustrative, not exhaustive or prioritized)

Width

1. How many people were reached by the program?_____

2. Were the actual participants those who were expected in the original design of the program? ___ yes ___somewhat ___no

3. How many need to have exhibited results for the program to be effective?

Depth

4. How much of the following was expected from participants?

	Little				Alot
a. mastery of new information?	1	2	3	4	5
b. change in attitude?	1	2	3	4	5
c. development of skill:	1	2	3	4	5
d. new actions?	1	2	3	4	5

5. How much of the following kinds of responses were expected?

a. awareness	1	2	3	4	5
b. understanding	1	2	3	4	5
c. application in class situation	1	2	3	4	5
d. application in real life situation	1	2	3	4	5

6. List the specific responses expected below. Rate each as to the degree of complexity of the response that is required.

		Low				High
_____	_____	1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	1	2	3	4	5

7. List results likely to have occurred not specified in the objectives.

---

8. Are there any characteristics of the intended impact which will require unusual force on the part of the program? __no ___some ___yes

CONCLUSIONS ABOUT THE LIKELIHOOD OF THE PROGRAM PRODUCING THE EXPECTED IMPACT

After reviewing the nature of that which is to be learned, the force exerted by the program, and conditions affecting learning, to what extent is it poosible that this program will provide:

___ 1. expected/unexpected results measurable and defendable using statistical tests
___ 2. expected/unexpected results which are measurable but may not rule out chance occurrence.
___ 3. expected/unexpected results which are documentable but probably not measurable
___ 4. little or no results

WORK: A WAY TO AVOID RETURN TO PRISON

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Residents of Menard Psychiatric Center in Southern Illinois are incarcerated men who are also in need of mental health treatment. They are serving sentences for a complete range of illegal activity from misdemeanor to felony. They may be as young as 17 years of age.

This facility also serves as a treatment center for those persons who have been determined by Illinois courts to be sexually dangerous persons. These men do not have a determinate sentence, but rather stay here until the treatment is considered complete by psychiatric review and judicial opinion.

The educational program of the institution is one of four departments which are therapy-oriented. The other departments include Activity Therapy, Medical Services and Clinical Services. Education in the institution is completely voluntary, using incentive and motivational techniques to avoid regimentation of those who are mentally ill. Education here strives to bring these men to a realization of self and realization of attainable goals commensurate with current condition and ability of each individual resident. All activities, educational and others as well, operate within a framework of security operations since the original placement of the men in the correctional system resulted from illegal activity outside the institution.

The philosophy of the Prevocational Program is that in order to be of best use to oneself and to the persons immediately involved in one's life, constructive activity needs to take place. The Prevocational Horticulture program provides concrete work experiences directed to that end. Attention is given to stabilizing inmates before attempting to

teach. Regularity of work habits and acceptance of responsibility are important goals in the Greenhouse. When stability is achieved to some degree, inmates may be referred by the teacher to other educational programming which can yield a certificate, to a work assignment within the institution, or attainment of realistic, personal goals upon release.

Inmates may refer themselves or other inmates to the Prevocational Horticulture program, or staff may make referrals. Upon receipt of approximately 10 referrals over a period of time, the list of referrals is compiled by the teacher in Department of Corrections Identification number order, with the name of each inmate, and a place for their approval or disapproval by the Assistant Warden for Security and the Administrator of the institution. The educational administrator and the Prevocational Horticulture teacher confer about the needs of each resident. Those who are under twenty-one years of age are given priority for admission into the program. Following that, those with the greatest needs who have been security-approved are admitted.

Over a period of two years, 140 names have been submitted by the education staff for security approval. This number represents 134 different individuals. Of the 134 individuals submitted for security approval, 115 were approved (86%). For reasons of security, 14% were denied entry into the program. These names were submitted on 19 separate memoes with an average of 7.37 names per memo.

Referrals came from residents themselves (82.7%), and from individual staff and I.E.P. Committees for special education (17.3%). Of the 115 individual residents approved for the program, 81 have actually participated in the class (70.4% of those approved) for an average 90.85 days

each.

After admission to the program, each resident is given a copy of the attendance code. This code explains to the inmate what the symbols in the attendance code mean. An inmate's attendance is rated by his work, his coming to work on time, his receiving the pass to class but refusing to answer, receiving the pass and reporting without working, his reporting on time (or failure to do so), and other such basic work skills. Other attendance code letters relate to the activity in the institution which an inmate might do instead of working in the Greenhouse. The purpose of including other-than-work parts of the code is to be able to point out to an inmate over a period of time that he may be forming habits which will interfere with his ability to either get a job or to keep it. Breaking such undesirable habits is one of the goals of the Prevocational Program.

Data indicate that black inmates over 21 years of age maintained an attendance record of 86.1%, whites over 21 a record of 85.6%, blacks under 21 a record of 59.6%, and whites under 21 an attendance record of 71.6%. We believe that this informations indicates that those under age 21 are indeed in great need of education in the area of competency level work skills. This premise was basic to the development of the program.

Work performance is rated daily on twenty-one behaviorally-stated goals using a scale of +2 to -2 for such work skills as reporting on time, producing quality work, asking appropriate questions, taking responsibility, solving problems independently, and others.

Anecdotal records are kept in the Greenhouse files which indicate

the particular problems or successes of each resident. On occasions when it is necessary to do so, the Prevocational Horticulture teacher makes appropriate referrals to such departments as Medical Services for psychiatric or medication review, to Activity Therapy for inclusion of inmates in programs as a reward for appropriate work habits, and to Clinical Services for further treatment of a psychiatric, legal or business nature.

Activities in the Greenhouse have produced sales on 32 separate occasions of $1403.03 with inmates making the sales to staff. In 1980 23 separate varieties of plants were sold, and in 1981 40 varieties were sold. Inmates also produced other plants valued in excess of $250.00 which were given to other institutions within the Department of Corrections.

Upon learning that release from the institution to the outside is about to take place, inmates are counseled about the job situation to which they will return. Efforts aimed at preparing the inmate for his best presentation of himself to a prospective employer are made by the teacher. Sample application blanks, work on a resume, letters of application, places where additional schooling may be obtained, methods of obtaining financial assistance for sustenance and for school, discovery of strengths and weaknesses are undertaken on an as-needed basis with the individual counseling provided by the teacher. Other information concerning current pricing of consumer goods, current job market information, and names of agencies which provide mental health treatment, medical treatment and other help in the area to which the inmate will return is given to the inmate.

A library of significant proportions is maintained both by the Menard Psychiatric Center Library and in the Prevocational teacher's office. These reference tools help inmates analyze their career choices, their degree of readiness to enter the career of choice, and the picture of the current job market for their career of choice. Many inmates have unrealistic ideas of goals about their future life in the work of work. These materials are directed toward helping them establish realistic goals in their work life, personal life, and their life in relation to their current placement.

All statistical data contained in this report are collected from those records maintained in the Prevocational Horticulture classroom. They are supported by the anecdotal record kept on inmates. Statistical data for comparison are difficult or impossible to obtain since this institution serves a unique population.

SYMPOSIA

ORGANIZING CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

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SYMPOSIUM

"ORGANIZING CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION"

The purpose of this research was to provide a better understanding of the relationship between continuing professional education centers and their environments. For this research I have used the term "continuing professional education center" to mean an organization or unit designed to accomplish a continuing education function for practitioners in a particular profession. Such continuing professional education offices may serve a specific geographic region. The term "environment" refers generally to the field of forces in which a continuing professional education center operates. The environment of an organization is not only comprised of the characteristics of persons, other organizations and setting but also includes the relationships with these key elements. Characteristics and relationships together constitute the influence of the environment on the operation of a continuing professional education center.

Continuing Professional Education Centers

Continuing professional education centers have received little systematic inquiry as organizations. Hence there is not existing theory about them. Through a factor analysis procedure, two major dimensions were derived from an orthogonal rotation of items reflecting the types of programs and services which centers provided and the manner in which they learned about the educational needs of the practitioners who attend their programs. On the basis of their scores on these two factors, centers were divided into four categories.

SERVICE ORIENTED continuing professional education centers emphasized:
consultation and technical assistance given to individual practititioners;
the use of demonstrations and development of model programs;
providing information services to practitioners;
developing brief educational programs (e.g., staff development workshops) for professional staff of a particular organization;

These centers relied heavily on practitioners' requests for programs or assistance to identify educational needs.

EDUCATION ORIENTED continuing professional education centers emphasized:
conferences (two to five days in length);
institutes (five or more days in length);
courses for graduate or continuing education credit meeting at a location other than the practitioners' work site;

These centers learned about practitioner needs from experts other than the practitioners themselves, or by literature or performance evaluation.

Two hybrids of these main types were used to classify the remaining continuing professional education centers in the sample. Centers which indicated an emphasis across most of the above listed learning formats and needs assessment approaches made up a third category. A fourth category included those centers which indicated that their emphasis was on one or

two learning formats. For the most part, centers in this fourth category provided one-day open invitation workshops and surveyed practitioners in numerous organizations to establish educational needs.

Continuing Professional Education Centers and Their Environments

Now let us turn to the question of the relationship between continuing professional education centers (four types having been established) and their environments (32 potential environmental influences were included). Do center environments vary according to the type of center? More specifically, can we predict what type a center would be if we know certain characteristics of its environment? A discriminant analysis procedure was used to answer this question.

For this sample of 184 centers serving four professions (clergy, law, health and education professionals), it was found that the two primary categories, SERVICE and EDUCATION orientations, can be distinguished at a 92% accuracy rate by knowledge of nineteen environmental influences. Of these nineteen, some are more important than others (i.e. are weighted more heavily in the discriminant equation).

SERVICE ORIENTED continuing professional education centers (as opposed to EDUCATION ORIENTED centers) may be characterized as having:

a. a greater percent of funds from external grants (as opposed to parent organization funds or practitioner fees) (.49);
b. seasonal weather which may inhibit travel (.34);
c. more support resources (i.e., bookkeeping, printing, clerical) from the parent organization (.57);
d. more contact with practitioners (.12, .22);
e. more staff with experience as a practitioner (.33);
f. more staff members (.21).

EDUCATION ORIENTED continuing professional education centers (as opposed to those which are SERVICE ORIENTED) have an environment in which there is (are):

a. greater competition from other continuing professional education providers (.33);
b. practitioners whose professional association exercises greater influence on them (.55);
c. a larger region to be served (.20);
d. an informal relationship with the parent organization (.27).

The third category of continuing professional education centers can be distinguished from the other types but with less accuracy than the two main types. Using a separate discriminant function orthogonal to the first, it

Note: Discriminant weights are indicated (without +, - signs) so that you may judge the power of each influence relative to other influences.

was found that centers in the third category can be distinguished from other centers in that they have:

a. more center staff with experience as practitioners (.50);
b. more staff changes (.35);
c. greater degree of contact with practitioners (.44, .33);
d. a larger geographic region (.43).

It should also be noted that in contrast to other continuing professional education centers, centers in the third category have:

a. less competition (.22);
b. less difficulty obtaining resource persons (.38);
c. less of an informal relationship with parent organization (.47);
d. fewer practitioners in large organizations (.36);
e. less dependence on funds from grants (.25).

Centers in the fourth category of continuing professional education centers have moderate activity across learning formats with no identifiable emphasis or an emphasis on only one or two learning formats. As indicated earlier, the workshop format and surveying practitioner needs were a major focus for these centers. The environments of this fourth category of centers are very similar to the environments of EDUCATION ORIENTED centers. These two groups are hard to distinguish on the basis of their environments. Some differences between the fourth category of continuing professional education centers and EDUCATION ORIENTED centers are that centers in the fourth category have:

a. a more informal relationship with the parent organization (.47);
b. more difficulty obtaining resource persons (.38);
c. use of more practitioners on advisory councils or policy boards (.33);
d. practitioners who work in medium to large organizations with other practitioners (.36).

Perhaps the key characteristic is that continuing professional education centers in the fourth category have greater difficulty obtaining effective resource persons for an extended period of time than do EDUCATION ORIENTED centers. They do not appear to have access to the variety of resources from a parent organization or from other sources.

Learning Outcomes

Directors were asked how sucessful they felt their centers were in terms of achieving several types of learning outcomes among practitioners. Significant differences occurred between the third and fourth categories of centers on improving practitioners' techniques and skills and problem solving skills. From a methodological standpoint, one might expect the directors in the third group to have higher mean scores on these and other outcome variables. Because they rated their program activity higher, they

might be expected to rate themselves high on these scales as well. However, from a theoretical standpoint the emphasis on a variety of learning formats would most likely produce success across a broader range of learning outcomes. For these same reasons, lower mean scores could be anticipated for centers in the fourth category.

It is perhaps of more interest to note the differences in outcomes between EDUCATION ORIENTED and SERVICE ORIENTED continuing professional education centers, since these two general orientations formed the basis of the scheme for categorizing centers. There were significant differences in perceived improvement in practitioners' attitudes related to professional practice and in enhancing the practitioners' role in the work setting. These seem to be of more concern for SERVICE ORIENTED centers than for EDUCATION ORIENTED centers. Finally, it was of interest to note that, in general, continuing professional education centers viewed themselves as equally successful in improving practitioners' knowledge related to professional practice. There were no significant differences among the means of this variable for the four categories of centers.

LEARNING DISABILITY AND THE ADULT BASIC READING PROGRAM

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The research on the incidence of learning disability in the adult population is notable by its absence from the literature. A search reveals little expressed concern for adult learning disabilities. In contrast, however, learning disabilities in children became a research and program concern in the early sixties, and a body of knowledge developed relative to the needs of the school aged population. Many of those educators responsible for teaching basic skills to adults, by nature of their training, are unaware of this body of knowledge. Furthermore, when the adult educator is knowledgeable about learning disabilities in children and adolescents, the practice of directly applying this knowledge to adults can be highly suspect since there is limited evidence which indicates the validity of such practices.

Travis (1979) noted that those adults who are now 37 or above passed through the public schools before services for the learning disabled were offered. It is commonly estimated that 15% of the population at large is learning disabled. Therefore, we can estimate that approximately 20,000,000 adults over 18 may be in this category. Jordan (1978) estimates that as much as 80% of the adults who enter Adult Basic Education programs may be learning disabled.

From the lack of research regarding adult learning disabilities one might conclude that society labors under one of the following hypotheses:

1. Learning disability interventions with children have been completely successful in overcoming learning problems; or

2. Learning disability programs in the public schools have accomplished all that is possible with these unfortunate individuals and further therapy would be unproductive; or

3. Interventional strategies, etc. which have been demonstrated as productive with the child and adolescent learning disabled are readily applicable to the adult; or

4. Learning disabilities which plague younger learners simply disappear or are compensated for when one becomes an adult.

The fallacies of all of the above positions are obvious. When one considers the inordinate financial and talent drain on society which is a consequence of this segment of our population being unable to join the ranks of effective, productive citizenry, it would appear to be mandatory that the area of adult learning disabilities becomes one of legitimate concern for the educational researcher.

Who are the Adult Learning Disabled?

Silberberg and Silberberg (1978) comment that if the cures applied to the learning disabled child in the public school were working, we would have only a few learning disabled adults. Moreover, there should be few adults under age 37 with learning disability symptoms, since most of these have come through the public school learning disability programs. Certainly, such is not the case.

Silberberg further comments that most of these people are in a "Catch 22" position. They can obtain jobs requiring minimum of reading if they can complete the vocational training program, which they cannot because the reading assignments are too difficult. There are really few options for the learning disabled adult who cannot read.

There are a few descriptions in the literature about the life of learning disabled adults. Schwartz, Gilroy and Lynn (1976) report case studies of learning disabled adults unable to read and unable to maintain employment. Cox (1977) also reports that most learning disabled adults are self-identified and self-referred, seeking help at various clinics or adult basic education programs. When intimately involved with the diagnostic and instructional process, and when assisted with the skills needed in life, they are highly motivated to succeed. This unique characteristic is not always present in younger learners and becomes a highly important factor in the achievement of success for the adult learner.

From follow-up studies of children and youth who received intervention during school years there is little evidence that strategies have been particularly successful. Howden (1967) summarizes the acquired data by saying that these individuals may be ". . . illiterate, poor readers, or average readers as adults" depending on the nature of the original etiology. In another follow-up study of adults some 12 years after they were seen initially at the Bellevue Hospital Mental Hygiene Clinic in New York, Silver and Hagen (1964) found that there was still a residual neurological and perceptual dysfunction. The more serious the reading problem in the early elementary years, the more involved it became in adult years. Balow and Bloomquist (1965) noted that the reading trouble which had hindered children in academic work continued to cause difficulties in adult life. A disporportionate number were employed in semiskilled and unskilled jobs. Hardy (1968) concluded that as much as 30% of the readers who were given remediation in the public school appeared to achieve some measure of successful job adjustment but had extensively limited self-concepts. Frauenheim's study (1978) concluded that, even with public school remediation, learning disabled children matured into adults who maintained severe disorders. His study also pointed out that the severity in adulthood was closely related to the etiology of the problem. Although the follow-up studies of effects of learning disability on adult life-styles are limited, there are other studies which also substantiate the findings of the studies quoted here.

Definition and Characteristics of Learning Disability

Many different definitions of learning disability have been promulgated, each with a somewhat different focus or set of identified disabilities. Indeed, part of the reason that a body of knowledge relative to adult learning disabilities has been lacking lies with the inadequacy of a definition which is appropriate to the older learner. As defined by the federal government in order to regulate the granting of monies for programs, the disorder is defined in this way:

> "Specific learning disability means a disorder in one or more of the basic psychological processes involved in understanding or in using language, spoken or written, which may manifest itself in an imperfect ability to listen, think, speak, read, spell, or to do mathematical

calculations. The term includes such conditions as perceptual handicaps, brain injury, minimal brain dysfunction, dyslexia, and developmental aphasia. The term does not include children who have learning problems which are primarily the result of visual, hearing, or motor handicaps, or mental retardation, or emotional disturbance, or of environmental, cultural, or economic disadvantage." (Federal Register)

Being child-oriented, this definition (and others currently in use) leads to a child-oriented model of instruction, child-oriented diagnosis and expectations, child-oriented instructional materials, and most importantly, child-oriented teacher education.

Thus, as Sabbatino (1981) observes, a paucity of applicable research combines to create an absence of realistic information needed to equip adult basic education teachers with attitudes, teaching skills and instructional materials to either understand or cope with the learning disabled adult. Thus, other than superficial, cosmetic differences, one observes so-called adult learning disability programs or basic education programs which are hardly distinguishable from those conceived for children. What is needed is an adult model of learning disability generated from research with adult learning disabled persons and thus producing teacher education models and interventional procedures specific to the mature individual's characteristics, life and learning styles, interests, and needs.

Despite these weaknesses, most current definitions of learning disability have some agreement on the following characteristics: adequate intellectual ability; absence of major sensory impairments or physical disabilities; academic performance in school subjects below age/grade expectancy; and the disability manifested through disorders in various cognitive processes, e.g., memory, association, conceptualization, sequencing, etc.

Some literature reviews have been addressed to the characteristics of older learning disabled individuals (Brutten, Richardson, and Mangel, 1973; Russell, 1974; and Siegel, 1974). Mercer (1979) identified some of the more applicable characteristics for the adult population as being: 1. alienation from family; 2. difficulty in anticipating the behavior of others; 3. difficulty in changing behavior patterns; 4. difficulty in generalizing from experience; 5. difficulty in interpreting and using symbols; and 6. difficulty in selecting from alternatives; 7. tendency for distraction; 8. hyperactivity; 9. inflexibility; 10. poor logical reasoning; and 11. severe underachievement.

The experienced adult basic education teacher will have observed many of these behaviors directly in class, job assignments or in social relationships. Although certain of these characteristics may be quite pronounced, a given individual may have learned to mask or hide some disabilities quite well or has learned some compensation techniques.

Conventional School Programming

In any analysis of the current status of the adult learning disabled student, some attention should be given to the previous educational history of the individual. If a hypothetical 30-year old learning disabled male is identified, his

probable school history could be described as follows: 1. identified as learning disabled in the third grade; 2. received specifically prescribed remedial education in the fourth and fifth grade; 3. was mainstreamed into a regular sixth grade classroom; 4. received no services in the seventh grade; 5. was assigned to low-track English and math classes in the eighth and ninth grades; 6. received no assistance for learning and behavior problems in the tenth grade; 7. dropped out of school at the end of tenth grade. From this hypothetical case scenario, a number of secondary school related problems, which may be all too real to the adult drop-out or learning disabled individual, can be identified. Recently the Carnegie Council (1979) estimated that fully one third of the nation's youth are ill-educated, ill-employed, and ill-equipped to make their way in society. The report also states that high schools are an alienating experience for thousands of young people and that the nation is in danger of developing a permanent underclass or culture of poverty. This observation may become even more true if current depressed economic trends continue wherein the learning and reading disabled are unable to compete for positions in industry and professional schools.

The inadequacy of secondary education programs for serving the needs of the learning disabled youth or young adult has been noted by parents, special and regular educators and more recently in litigation proceedings. Even within the ranks of traditional special education programs, the needs of older exceptional students have been ignored. As stated earlier in this paper, what, indeed, has happened to the many elementary aged students who were identified and received specialized assistance? There have not been concomitant and similar services offered at the secondary and post-secondary school level. In reviewing this situation at the secondary level, Weiderholt and McEntire (1980) identified the following as contributing to the present problem: 1. Secondary educators are considered specialists in content and are not assumed competent to deal with the disabled student; 2. Secondary school programs have been largely directed to preparing students for college entrance; 3. Often secondary remedial programs are watered down textbook content sequences; and 4. School systems and teachers have not evaluated their instruction for the purposes of determining whether instructional goals were appropriate or achieved.

In spite of the negative statements in the above review, there are new and successful secondary and post-secondary actions which have begun to be implemented. Some of the most innovative and creative developments have taken place in secondary alternative schools, adult basic education programs, community colleges and correctional facilities. Although limited by the bounds of school districts, administrative foresight and community tax support, the existence and success of these programs indicates that secondary programming can be changed in a positive way.

Post-Secondary, Vocational and Career Programming

The foregoing discussion focused on the problems and educational needs of the learning disabled prior to leaving or graduating from traditional secondary education programs. What happens to this individual once he has left the secondary school environment? What are his options? What assistance will he need in a role as independent adult? There has been very little reported in the literature on the status of these individuals. The reasons are varied, but among

them are the following: 1. a reluctance to be identified as "disabled" or "handicapped"; 2. unwillingness to seek professional assistance with a job finding or to seek public aid; 3. reliance on friends and family to provide assistance and direction; and 4. lack of knowledge about the existence of private, state and federal programs of assistance.

Aside from the factors stated above which contribute to the learning disabled adult's lack of involvement in vocational and career assistance programs, how can they become recipients of necessary training and life-supporting skills? Kolstoe (1976) stresses the need for the individual to be aware of dress requirements, time scheduling considerations and his maturity level. Although these topics would appear to be elementary to most adults, the disabled individual may not discern their importance or their connection with employment. The Association for Children and Adults with Learning Disabilities has prepared a handbook on specific learning disabilities in the adult years which identifies some of these types of problems. One example given is as follows: "She chuckles at the club luncheon, but only after everyone else, and then she laughs too long. She misperceives her social and career world also. She may well become unemployable except in the most structured setting such as sheltered employment." (ACLD, 1982, p.5). Participation in most vocational and career training programs would generally stress that the individual be able to accept direction, supervision, work independently, be regular in attendance, follow work rules and be cooperative with other workers (Washburn, 1975; Wiig, 1972).

In a related discussion on the importance of thinking strategies for the learning disabled adolescent or adult, Alley and Deshler (1979) identify the following organizational skills as being crucial to later independence: 1. Perceiving the organization in a set of materials such as is found in written study materials and job assignments; 2. Identifying the importance of organizing information; 3. Realizing that information can be manipulated or rearranged according to user needs; 4. Dealing with an isolated task in an organized fashion; and 5. Dealing with multiple tasks in an organized fashion. The usefulness of these skills in adult life, whether it be work, recreation or other such activity cannot be under estimated. Other important work-related skills needed for vocational and career success are problem solving (Patton and Griffin, 1973), question asking (Torrance andMyers, 1970), self-monitoring of performance (Adams, 1971), and time management (Wilcox, 1970; Drake and Cavanaugh, 1970).

A review of literature in career/vocational area shows repeated calls for intensive career preparation and planning to prepare learning disabled students with marketable skills that apply to many different occupations (Bellamy, Horner, and Inman, 1978; Mann, Goodman, and Wiederholt, 1978; Irvine, Goodman and Mann, 1978). There are still unmet national needs for workers in a variety of industries such as computer technology, automotive trades, law assistance and agricultural occupations. Likewise, there is also a real need for matching occupational strengths with specific job requirements (Williamson, 1975).

Reading Skills and Adult Survival

It is generally assumed that adult basic education teachers will encounter students with a wide variety of skill deficits among the students enrolled in

their basic reading skills development courses. Harris and Sipay (1975) have identified the most crucial reading skill areas as being vocabulary development, word recognition, reading comprehension, reading rate and study skills. One might well ask why these skill domains should be reiterated or reintroduced with the adult learning disabled student who may well have had exposure to these particular categories since the fourth grade. One answer is that most reading skills are easily classified under one or another of these skill areas or domains. However, it should be pointed out that not all domains of reading instruction are equal in importance or scope. Many adult basic education reading instructors point to the greater importance of developing silent reading comprehension for the learning disabled adult than the skills of precise oral reading.

Drawing from the work of Bowren and Zintz (1977), Harris and Sipay (1975), Kaluger and Kolson (1969), and Thomas and Robinson (1972), the following basic reading skills are viewed as most needed by older learning disabled students:

1. Vocabulary (denotative and connotative meanings of words and technical terms)

2. Basic sight word and survival word identification

3. Analytical and critical reading skills (recognition of topic sentences, location of important details, recognition of organizational patterns)

4. Questioning strategies (cognitive-memory questions, convergent and divergent thinking questions, evaluative and personal judgment questions, procedures questions and task questions)

5. Reading rate flexibility

6. Study and locational skills

Conclusion

The incidence of adult learning disability is far too great to merit the lack of research attention it has received in the literature. Services to these learners are severely limited as are their options in becoming contributing members of our democratic society. However, until a definition of adult learning disability can be derived which is built on adult characteristics and needs rather than on those of children, it is doubtful that adult instructional models will be forthcoming.

Learning disability is not a problem which disappears when one reaches adulthood. It is not a problem that can be forever masked. It is an educational area that merits far more attention than has historically been assigned to it.

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CONTINUING EDUCATION:
THE STATE OF THE ART IN HEALTH EDUCATION

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CONTINUING LEARNING:
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Continuing Learning:

The State of the Art in Health Education

The emerging profession of health education was explored as a means to understand the current state of continuing education for health educators. In addition, interviews were conducted to elicit the perceptions and practices of six health educators regarding their profession and its continuing education opportunities. The interviews uncovered a diversity of backgrounds, professional memberships and perceptions of the health educator's role. A dissatisfaction with the continuing education opportunities was also expressed. It is clear from this study that better organized, more productive continuing education will only come about as a result of advancements in the professionalization process.

Continuing Learning:
The State of the Art in Health Education

> In general, continuing education activities in public health education have lacked organization, clarity and definition. No single organization or educational institution has assumed the responsibility for providing continuing education as a comprehensive, planned program serving a well defined constituency (Dual, 1980, p. 17).

The current state of continuing learning for health educators is a function of the current state of the health education profession. This profession has yet to achieve a great deal of recognition from either the public or the professional world. Over the years, health educators have been tagged as everything from quasi-educators to jacks of all trades, and masters of none; from an "...emerging profession which has grown from infancy to adolescence to a vital component of health and medical programs that utilize educational processes to achieve disease-preventive, curative, rehabilitative and health promotive ends" (Sherriffs, 1980, p. 7). Currently, health educators are no closer to one collective identity than this range of tags suggests. Thus, if health education is to achieve a well-organized, effective system of continuing education, then greater attention should be focused upon the process of professionalization.

It is the intent of this paper to explore the state of the art of the health educator and its effects upon continuing education in the field. A set of interviews was undertaken to survey health educators' perceptions of the field of health education and their continuing education practices. An introduction to the field however, will first be necessary for a complete understanding of the interview results.

An initial prerequisite for understanding the nature of health educators entails definition of the basic terminology: "health", "educator" and "health educator." This proves to be a difficult task and is seen by many as the root of the health educator's identity crisis. In addition, it should be noted that the health educator family tree bears a few branches. Included within this tree are school health educators, medical setting (i.e., patient) health educators and public or community health educators. The focus of this paper will not include school health educators and while it can be argued that this type of segregation only perpetuates the fragmentation already existing in the field, it is actually the credentials required to practice school health education that places this occupation in a very different arena than community health and patient education.

One must also realize that the field of health education is unique; while it is based upon scientific foundations, it truly cuts across several subject areas (Darden, 1973). It is defined as "the process of assisting individuals, acting separately or collectively, to make informed decisions about matters affecting individual, family and community health" (Bureau of Health Education, 1980, p. 6). Therefore, health education is not just disseminating information; but a <u>planned</u> informational process which can serve

as a motivating force toward more positive physical, mental, spiritual and social health.

The field of health education has witnessed a rapid evolution. In the 1920s, employed health educators were only seen in public health departments and a few voluntary health agencies (D'Onofrio, et al., 1981). By 1950, the Society of Public Health Educators (SOPHE), the first organization specifically for health educators, was formed to encourage the study, practice and research of public health education (Tennessee Chapter, 1980). The social programs established in the sixties combined with the increasing numbers and types of health professionals broadened the market for health educators and led to the creation of the President's Committee on Health Educators in 1971 (Dwore, 1981). The nation's interest in health education continued to spiral with six factors as major influences. They were: 1) new informed consent laws; 2) increased medical malpractice suits; 3) the self-care movement; 4) new health care systems; 5) greater emphasis on prevention and wellness; and 6) rising health care costs.

In the National Health Planning and Resources Development Act of 1974, Congress named health education as one of the ten priorities to be recognized by regional health planning organizations (Dawson, et al., 1980). This legislation along with the public's growing health awareness, created a need for more health educators. Now, 280 higher education institutions offer health education degrees at the graduate and undergraduate level (AAHE, 1980).

The rapid evolution and the legislative bases of support suggest that this is a widely-accepted, well-organized profession. Yet, in reality, the general consensus of the current state of the art is one of an "emerging profession" (Sherriffs, 1981). In fact, a review of the literature identified seven major issues which, if not resolved, could bar any further advancement in the professionalization of health educators.

Definition: The difficulty in defining a health educator results from lack of one clearly stated and accepted definition of health.

Credentials: There are no statutory or voluntary regulations required for someone to practice health education.

Accreditation and Standardization: There is not one group that accredits all 280 degree-granting programs, nor is a single set of standards used to accredit all programs.

Professional Organization: There is not a single, overall body which acts as the professional organization for the entire field. In fact, there are at least seven national organizations (Bureau of Health Education, 1980).

Constituency: The number of practicing health educators is virtually unknown.

Cultural Attitude: The field of health education co-exists with the medical field in the realm of our nation's health care system. This system, representing the traditional medical profession viewpoint (cure the symptom) leaves little room for the health educator's message (cure the cause).

Continuing Education: Despite this field's responsibility to serve the dynamic and increasingly complex health needs of our society, most continuing eductional opportunities lack accessability or specificity for the health educator.

Considering the information presented thus far, six health educators,

employed by the Department of Health Education and Nutrition within the City of Milwaukee Health Department were interviewed. The purpose was to determine: 1) their perceptions regarding the current and future states of the profession; 2) their continuing education practices; and 3) the effect of professionalism of the field upon the fields' continuing education.

METHOD

A four part, combination open-ended and structured interview (about 45 minutes in length) was used to collect information. Part 1 generated basic background information. Part 2 required perceptions of the field's professional status. Part 3 elicited the participant's opinions regarding future trends and Part 4 asked for continuing education information.

FINDINGS

The participants were found to have a variety of undergraduate (6) and graduate (3) majors (of which 2 were Bachelor's degrees in health education and 1 was a Master's degree in the field). Five of the six belonged to at least two professional organizations. The sixth belonged to none. All have been in the field at least four years. Only one of the six could name two health education associations. Four of the six named two organizations having health education sections within the organization and the sixth could name none. The qeustion, "what is a health educator?" yielded six distinctly different definitions while everyone agreed that the answer to "who is a health educator?" was anybody.

In Part 2, a 1-10 rating of the field's professional status averaged a 6. The participants rated their profession based on Lieberman's (Sherriffs, 1980) eight attributes of a profession. The attributes are: unique services, intellectual techniques, long training periods, autonomy, a self-governing professional organization, a responsibility for judgment, a code of ethics and a service orientation. The interviewees also offered the following reasons for their field's state of professionalism: deity complex of physicians (3), lack of training (3), youth of profession (2) and lack of defined responsibilities (2).

In Part 3, everyone agreed that in the future they would like to be a profession with a well-defined identity, although half expressed concern about exclusionary practices that might occur as a result. One of six felt that training at schools of health education was necessary and all but two felt that credentials of any type were unnecessary. All six mentioned increased training as a priority for the future of health educators. In addition, three listed a change in society's attitudes regarding medicine.

In Part 4, everyone confirmed participation in continuing education from January, 1981 to October, 1981. Since continuing education in this department is expected, though not required, most participation was self-motivated. The majority had participated in two or three events, one had gone to five and one had been to fifteen. Two of the six considered the overall impact of these courses or conferences to be poor. Four of the six were dissatisfied with the continued education available for health educators, in general, as it is usually not specific to health educators.

DISCUSSION

The findings of the interviews appear to support the notion that the state of the profession is having an effect upon the continuing education available to health educators. This is supported by the dissatisfaction of a majority of the six participants with regard to the amount of continuing education in their specific field.

The interviews confirmed the fact that health educators are not a well-defined, well-organized profession. The group is not homogeneously trained. In six attempts to define the occupation, no two definitions were similar. Interestingly, not one person defined a health educator on the basis of some type of formal training and thus undermined the professionalism of the field. The majority do not know about the existence of health education organizations and very few people shared membership in the same organization.

They suffer a paradoxical existence working within a medically-oriented system which is exactly what they try to keep people out of by prevention. All six mentioned some aspect of the medical field which hindered their work.

Also paradoxically, they all desire one clear professional identity, yet the majority would not support either of two steps (credentials or health education degrees) which could enhance professional identity. To confuse matters even more, the suggestion, offered by all six, which would keep health educators a vital force in the health care system was training. This suggests that not one of these health educators (no matter what major in college) felt properly prepared for their job.

Despite all the incongruity, they still rated themselves a six on the professional continuum, suggesting either they rated the group higher than an actual status, they didn't understand the question, or the question was faulty.

In conclusion, the demonstrated lack of a clear professional identity, one professional organization, and some standard for accountability for properly trained health educators all play a major role in the ability of the profession to plan, coordinate, implement or ensure effective continuing education for health educators.

Frankly, the field is simply becoming too large, their potential impact upon lives is too serious and society is changing too fast to allow such an ineffective strategy for continued education and accountability to exist. Without some increased professionalization in the field of health education, our entry-level health educators will be of variable competence, and the continuing competence of experienced health educators could be questionable. The effect of such a situation is ominous for this young profession.

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THE STATE OF CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION IN THE FIELD OF DIETETICS

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The state of continuing professional education in the field of dietetics

The paper presents the results of a study to obtain the views of selected dietitians concerning continuing professional education. An interview was used to determine the types of continuing professional education experiences participated in by these dietitians and the reasons they gave for the participation. It was discovered during the interviews that the most valued experiences were not "formal" continuing education but non-formal experiences that made the person grow both personally and professionally.

The state of continuing professional education in the field of dietetics

Continuing professional education in the field of dietetics is a subject that has been under discussion for a number of years. The dietitians who see themselves as professionals see the need for continuing education to maintain a high standard of service for their clients. Hallahan (1974) states, "In a profession, we expect to find a nobility of purpose, a dedication to service, and a competency that is constantly being honed... that you have a curiosity that propels you towards increased knowledge" (p.604). Bogle (1974) contends that the American Dietetic Association has taken a leadership role among health professional organizations in the area of registration and continuing education.

The importance of continuing education has been mentioned in the American Dietetic Association Journal and an item of discussion among practitioners for several decades. The association's first attempt to launch a voluntary program of professional registration tied to mandatory continuing education began in 1966. This amendment to the constitution was voted on by the membership and adopted within a three-year period.

The voluntary registration program consists of two components. The first component is the passing of a registration exam given by the American Dietetic Association's Committee on Professional Registration. This exam was determined to be an objective way to establish a common core of knowledge shared by all members of the association. The second component is the maintenance of registration by the completion of at least 75 hours of approved continuing education within a five-year period.

Although the professional registration program and its attached continuing education requirements are voluntary, the American Dietetic Association places a great deal of emphasis on registration of the membership. In the position paper on recommended salaries and employment practices for members of the American Dietetic Association (1981), the salary recommendations for an entry-level Registered Dietitian differ from an A.D.A. dietitian by $1,300 a year. This difference indicates the increased value placed on the dietitian who maintains professional registration with the Association.

In 1974 the American Dietetic Association issued a position paper on continuing education. The position paper (1974) defined continuing education for dietitians as "that which follows the basic preparation for the profession of dietetics and recognized that this is a life-long process" (p.289). The objectives they propose for continuing education are to enhance the knowledge of the individual member, thus improving her competency

and to enable members to make contributions to the field of dietetics. Since continuing education is not required to be a member of the Association, it is presented as the responsibility of each individual dietitian. She is to evaluate her educational needs and to institute a self-directed plan for their fulfillment.

Method

Subjects

Five subjects were included in this study. The subjects are all registered dietitians. Among the five subjects, one has a Master's Degree in Nutrition, one is currently pursuing a Master's Degree in Adult Education, and the remaining three have baccalaureate degrees in dietetics. Two of the subjects entered the field of dietetics through an American Dietetic Association approved internship. The other subjects entered the field of dietetics by graduation from an American Dietetic Association approved coordinated undergraduate program. Their experience in the field of dietetics range from less than one year to 22 years. They range in age from 23 to 52 years old. They represent five different areas of dietetic practice and work from three to 40 hours per week.

Subject One is the director of an American Dietetic Association approved coordinated undergraduate program and a full teaching professor in the program. She has influence over the continuing education of other dietitians. Her role as teacher of future dietitians places her in the position to influence the attitude of these future practitioners toward continuing professional education. Subject Two is an administrative director in a long-term care facility. She has been in the field of dietetics for 22 years and makes decisions that affect the continuing education of other dietitians. Subject Three is a dietitian specialist working within a hospital setting. Specializing in one area of dietetics might narrow the type of professional education participated in. Subject Four is a teacher in a community technical college. She is not affiliated with an institution that would sponsor her continuing education. Any participation in educational activities would be monetarily her responsibility. Subject Five is a contract dietitian currently employed by a community hospital and has been in practice less than one year. Dietitians employed by contract receive no benefits from the place of employment. Therefore, this subject would also be responsible monetarily for her continuing education.

Apparatus

The apparatus used in this study was a tape recorder and two computers to research the literature for articles pertinent to this study.

Procedure

A search of the literature was conducted to locate articles addressing the continuing education of dietitians. Two ERIC searches, a Medline search, and a hand search of Index Medicas, Index of Hospital Literature, and Index of Allied Health Literature from 1976-1981 identified pertinent articles on the subject of continuing education. From review of the literature, there seems to be little controversy concerning continuing education in the field of dietetics.

Dietitians working in different areas of dietetics were interviewed to determine if they agreed with the ideas presented in the literature. They represent different levels of education, authority, years in the profession, workloads and age. The information was obtained in a personal interview. Each subject was contacted prior to the interview. The general purpose of the interview, the type of information desired, and the procedure to be used for the interview was explained to them. The subjects were assured that their names would not be used in the study, to promote an atmosphere conducive to the expression of attitudes and opinions.

Results and Discussion

All five dietitians see continuing education as a part of life-long learning. Three of the five also see continuing education as a way to expand on the basic knowledge provided by their undergraduate studies. The two youngest dietitians stated that continuing education could increase their skills, thus making them more marketable in the work field.

Four of the five dietitians have participated in a variety of continuing education seminars and/or conferences in the last two years. One dietitian has begun working toward a Master's Degree in addition to other educational experiences. The majority of the continuing education activities selected by the dietitians related to their current employment. The dietitian who did not participate in any formal continuing education still felt it was important. She gave a number of reasons for not attending any continuing education seminars, including lack of time and money, and not wanting to go back for her Master's until she knew exactly what she wanted to do in her career.

All five of the dietitians mentioned some activity in their life that they felt had enriched their professional abilities. One dietitian had recently become an Amway dealer and felt that this had made her a more positive minded person that any schooling she had. The youngest dietitian felt her first year of employment had been her continuing education. The complete updating and reorganizing of a curriculum provided the best continuing education for the director of the undergraduate program. An elderly mother and the problems that presents, provided a changing experience that enhanced the professional expertise of one

dietitian. The fifth dietitian explained that giving a series of basic nutrition lectures to the public was her greatest professional experience.

The source of monetary reimbursement greatly influenced the choice and amount of continuing education participated in by the subjects. The dietitians that received reimbursement from their employers attended more activities. One subject stated that reimbursement can present a dilemma, since the employer who provides the reimbursement also decided what type of activities are attended.

Implications

The results of the study indicate that the dietitians interviewed all agree that continuing education is important to maintain and improve competencies and expand knowledge. However, they also see other experiences in their life as important and adding to their professional abilities. These experiences are not "countable" in relation to their required number of clock hours. Since these experiences are often the ones that the subjects feel are the most enriching to them, perhaps the professional needs to develop a method for allowing some credit for these activities. The profession might also benefit from a review of the type of experiences now being offered. These experiences do not seem to be satisfying the needs of the participants.

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CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION: THE STATE OF THE ART IN CHILD CARE WORK

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Continuing Professional Education: The State of the Art in Child Care Work

Institutions for children have been around for a long time, but it wasn't until the 1950's that there was a shift in purpose from the custodial care of orphans to institutional care of children for treatment of emotional disturbances. Along with this shift in purpose came a challenge to the idea that child care work and parenting are analogous. The literature of the 1950's (Bettelheim, 1950; Knopka, 1954, Mayer, 1958) stresses the need for training for child care staff. Child care workers must have special skills, knowledge, and personal characteristics in order to provide the kind of care required in residential treatment. In response to the growing interest and concern for child care training, schools of social welfare began offering courses for child care workers as early as 1956, (University of North Carolina, School of Social Welfare). As the field of child care does not function independently but rather delivers its services within a larger framework or social work agency, a popular theory is that the field of child care is in the field of social work. Henry Maier (1964) conceptualized child care as a method of social work, paralell to casework, group work, and community organization. He urged schools of social welfare to develop concrete child care curriculum containing three relevant knowledge areas: social development, group dynamics and "child care method - the knowledge and skill to understand and carry out child care as a purposeful method" (p. 78.) Others argue that child care work should not be a part of any other profession, but rather develop its own professional status using existing knowledge from developmental psychology to define its theories (Piper, Rozentals, and Whipple, 1974). Child care work needs to be recognized as the back bone of any child care treatment agency, and trained child care workers the key to successful treatment of children in care.

Despite the awareness indicated by the literature for the past thirty years of the need for role definition, status recognition, and education, the profession of child care has been slow to emerge as it encounters resistance from within and outside its ranks. Current literature indicates the field is still attempting to define itself. As the movement grows toward professionalism there appears to be an ambivalence about the real meaning of professionalism, and if in fact, that is the route the child care workers should take to reach their goals (Peterson, 1981).

Much of the confusion around professionalism of child care workers and the necessary initial and continuing education requirements appears to stem from the child care workers themselves and from institution administrators. One factor effecting the growth of professionalism for child care workers has been the practice by agencies of hiring people as child care workers who have extremely diversified backgrounds, educational levels and areas of concentration, life experiences and personal goals. A study was done in 1963 at Bellefaire, a residential treatment center in Cleveland, Ohio, to determine what learning needs might be considered in developing a course of study for child care workers. The study revealed five categories of persons hired for the position of child care worker: cottage parents, people in search of a calling, professional child care workers, people between jobs, and professional social workers. This is a very diversified group of people.

Another factor effecting the growth of professionalism in child care is the reluctance of agency administrators to acknowledge the importance of trained child care staff to the total treatment program. As most agencies

operate with severely limited financial resources, administrators become threatened by the aspect of trained, professional child care workers who may demand higher wages or improved working conditions. In addition, there is a power structure within the agency that might be shifted or threatened as a trained child care worker obtains knowledge that has traditionally been the area of expertise belonging solely to other professional staff. All of these factors make the task of developing training for child care workers difficult, and without a specific body of knowledge, the field cannot claim professionalism.

Despite the complexity of developing training programs for a very diverse group of people, who in many instances have low motivation, as well as selecting subject matter and techniques for a group of people who perform a variety of functions and whose functions and role may differ greatly from agency to agency, many formal training programs have been developed around the Nation.

My research is a study of the movement toward professionalism of child care workers as it is reflected in hiring and training practices and in the attitudes of the child care workers toward continuing professional education and their commitment to the field as a profession.

The methods used in the research were a questionnaire, personal interviews and a group discussion. The questionnaire was answered by 10 child care workers and 15 child care supervisors. From this group I selected four supervisors and three child care workers for an interview. Participants were workers in agencies in Southeastern Wisconsin and in Phoenix, Arizona. The group discussion was part of a meeting of the Wisconsin Association of Child Care Supervisors.

The results of the study confirmed that at least four of the categories of child care worker defined by Mayer in his study in 1963 still do exist. None of the child care workers in this study had come in to the field seeking it out as a profession. Those workers who held a college degree were working at their first job since graduation, and would fall in the category of people in search of a calling. Supervisors readily acknowledged the practice of hiring people as child care workers who were known to be between jobs, people who were looking for part-time employment away from their regular professional position, and under graduate social workers looking for an entry level position in social work. Two of the supervisors in the study were the "cottage parents" who after having raised their own families, took a job as a child care worker and after a few years with the agency, received a promotion to the position of child care supervisor.

Eight of the child care workers held a Bachelor degree in five different fields. The remaining two workers have high school diplomas. Three of the child care supervisors had graduate degrees in three different fields, and four had Bachelors degrees also in four different fields. The rest of the supervisors reported a high school diploma.

All of the child care supervisors had been child care workers before obtaining their supervisory positions, but only two had received training in supervision prior to assuming their supervisory role. None of the child workers had received any training in child care work prior to obtaining their jobs. Attendance at seminars, workshops, and formal classes was high for both child care workers and supervisors. Of the 25 persons in the study only one indicated no attendance at training sessions other than in-service training provided by the agency. The method of training most favored was the workshop and seminar with the lecture being the least popular with both child care workers and supervisors. Agency support and

encouragement for continuing education for supervisors and child care workers was viewed as positive by all of the participants, but financial assistance was questionable. All of the participants indicated an interest in attending continuing education programs. The child care workers identified 10 different areas of interest. All of the child care supervisors were interested in attending classes in supervision, but they also identified many problem areas that were unique to them as individuals, as the job responsibilities of the supervisors varied greatly, and only two of them even held the same job title. Some of the common problems identified by the supervisors were: rapid turnover of staff; lack of experience and or training in presenting material for in-service training; not having access to organized materials for presentation for in-service training; and insufficient time provided by the agency for training.

In regard to the questions about commitment to the profession, five out of the 10 child care workers indicated they would remain in the field for the next five years. All of the supervisors expected to be in the field of child care for the next five years.

To the question of the field of child care as a profession, 10 of the supervisors identified the field as a profession, three answered that it was both a profession and a part of the field of social work, and two viewed the field as a combination of social work, a para profession, and an occupation. All of the child care workers indicated they saw the field as a profession, but six also stated that the profession is a part of the field of social work.

Conclusions

Though the field appears to have moved toward professionalism during the last 30 years, there appears to be the same question of identifcation. The number of people who do not see their work in child care as being a profession would seem to sustantiate that premise that goals are not clearly defined. However, the number of schools of training, as well as the rise of the professional organizations, i.e. the state and national associations of child care workers, and the recent development of certification of child care workers would indicate that identification and goals are consistent to some degree. There is a unique body of knowledge and skills that define the profession. Child care professionalism would seem to fit the dynamic concept of professionalism according to Houle (1980). Its progression has been a result of social trends and policies as well as the politics of the times. The profession is continually changing in order to meet the demands of society, but that should be viewed as growth rather than a lack of professionalism. The issue does not seem to be whether or not child care is a part of social work, but rather as Beker (1975) points out, one of training professional child care workers and at the same time facilitating growth and change within the agencies using child care worker services. Professional growth and development for child care work needs to be supported by the child care worker through his involvement in the professional organization, and by child care supervisors and administrators through their hiring and training practices.

The child care profession is a very fertile field for continuing education. There is a need for education of the consumer, the public, without whose demand for services the profession would die, as would all other professions. Young people need to be encouraged to enter the field, and child care workers in the field need ongoing training to provide them with new knowledge as well as support for their very difficult tasks. "Child care workers are a prime adult student market, and specialized

training in child care is just the kind of option that is needed to increase the undergraduate's marketability" (Krueger, 1982, p.74). Supervisors need continuing education to fulfill their role as a supervisor. Administrators need to be kept informed of the changing needs and problems in society as well as new methods of running an efficient but productive agency. Last but not least, there is a need for training for educators; educators who are the supervisors in agencies, workshop leaders in the community, and adult education classroom instructors.

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A SURVEY INTERVIEW TECHNIQUE:
CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION IN MEDICAL TECHNOLOGY

"A Survey Interview Technique:
Continuing Professional Education in Medical Technology."

The state of technology in the medical laboratory is such that analysis methods, instrumentation and the roles of personnel are outmoded almost as soon as they are brought into use. The current trends seem to indicate that in the near future it will be necessary for laboratory personnel to be retested at intervals in order to continue their certification (Comm.Med.Lab.,1977). In studies done by members of various educational agencies including Fritsma (1979), Swogger (1978) and Gleich (1975) the demand for continuing education opportunities by medical laboratory personnel is well documented. In Swogger's study a survey of 638 laboratory personnel indicated that over 96% of the survey population were interested in continuing education to increase knowledge and upgrade technologist skills.

In a survey of employee needs and problems at St. Luke's Hospital in Milwaukee, Wisconsin, Opportunity for Growth was sited as a major deficiency. In an effort to provide greater opportunity for the professional growth desired by laboratory employees, a committee was formed to organize and implement continuing education activities. The programs which were subsequently presented have been highly praised by those in attendance. Unfortunately, out of 225 laboratory employees (over 100 Medical Technologists) there have never been more than a dozen who have attended any one presentation. The timing seemed right for an evaluation of St. Luke's Hospital Medical Technologist's attitudes about continuing education. I conducted this survey in the months of October and November, 1981.

I chose to evaluate the state of Continuing Professional Education in the Laboratory by using a two part system. The first part of the research consisted of a survey designed to supply demographic information as well as the types and numbers of continuing education activities which were being attended by the Medical Technologist's at St. Luke's. It was also a means to determine which individuals in the population would be willing to participate in the second part of my research, a short interview about continuing professional education. A total of 100 surveys were distributed and within three weeks 42 surveys were filled out and returned. Demographic information of the survey population included:

Full time: 83%	Mean Age: 32
Part time: 17% (16-36 hr/wk)	Mean Years Experience: 7.6
B.S. MT(ASCP): 100%	Specialists: 3 participants
M.S.: 1 participant	Willing to be interviewed: 71%
Female: 93% Male: 7%	Unwilling: 29%

Information from the surveys pertaining to the types and numbers of professional continuing education activities participated in the survey population follows.

Formal College/University Continuing Education Activities 80-81

Percent of Respondents: 21
Percent of Job related courses: 19
Percent of courses in Education: 52
Percent of Business/Management: 29
Percent Voluntary: 100
Percent Paid by Participant: 28

The average rating on a scale of 1(Low) to 5(High) for these courses was above 4 in all cases.

Workshop/Conference/Seminar Educational Activites 80-81

Percent of Respondents: 76
Average Number of Activities: 2.7
Percent Job related: 78%
Percent of courses in Education: 3
Percent of Business/Management: 18
Percent Voluntary: 92
Percent Paid by Participant: 21

The average rating for these courses was between 3.3 and 3.5 .

Nonformal/Indirectly Related Learning Experiences 80-81

Percent of Respondents: 57
Areas Reported: Professional Contacts: 33%
(coworkers, conferences, other health professionals etc.)
Development/Inplementation of learning experiences for others: 29%
(Inservices, teaching students)
Observation/Living: 21%
Promotion/Job Change: 17%
Stress Management Courses: 13%
Orientation/Training period: 8%
Attending Student Lectures: 8%
Reading/Watching Educational TV: 8%
Developing Procedures: 8%
Doing Research: 8%
Trouble Shooting on the Job: 8%
Miscellaneous: 4%
-getting married to another Med.Tech.
-Study of Classical Piano as tension release

The average rating for these experiences was consistently 5.

No Learning Experiences of any Kind Reported

Percent of Respondents: 14
Part Time: 67%
Evening or Night Shift: 100%
Mean Age: 42
Married: 100%
Children at Home: 100%

More than 10 Learning Experiences of any Kind 80-81

Percent of Respondents: 12
Full Time: 100%
Evening or Night Shift: 0
Mean Age: 31
Grouping Included: Ed. Coordinator*
Clinical Instructor*
Supervisors (2)*
Medical Technologist*

Married: 1 individual
Children at Home: 1 individual with a fifth grade son

*All these individuals are involved with teaching either Med.Tech. students, new employees or fellow employees.

. . . . . .

The results of the survey seemed to highlight the factors which describe the person who is most likely to pursue professional continuing education. The full time, day shift, unmarried person with few ties at home, and job involvement with teaching of some form appears most likely to engage in continuing education on a large scale. The individual is generally younger than the average laboratory worker and is often in a position of authority. The individual who appears least likely to seek continuing professional education is married with children at home, significantly older than the average laboratory worker, working only part time on the evening shift or night shift, not teaching because this is only done on day shifts and usually not in a position other than bench level technology.

The second part of my research consisted of short interviews with five members of the survey population who had indicated that they would be willing to be interviewed. I chose the members of this segment of my study by arranging the surveys of the willing participants in order of the total numbers of educational experiences they had listed. I then selected the top two surveys, the bottom two surveys and one from the middle. I felt this would give me representation of all levels of motivation toward continuing professional education, if indeed motivation is a factor. This method of selection has the majority of representation at the extremes, and though not particularly representative of the total population, I was most interested in those individuals and their reasons for (or for not) seeking educational experiences.

My five interviews were conducted with individuals with the following job categories: Med. Tech., Full time, Days, Male; Med. Tech., Full time, Eve's, Male; Med. Tech, Part time, Nite's, Female; Supervisor, Female; Education Coordinator, Female. During each of the interviews I attempted to discuss the following areas: Motivation toward Professional Development, Rewards or Benefits of Continuing Professional Education, Greatest Impact on Professional Development and Ideas about Mandatory continuing education and Proficiency Testing.

The answers to questions on motivation were all fairly similar. The desire for self-improvement and an increase in upward career mobility were mentioned by several participants as incentives to seek out professional development activities. Increasing status

among members of administration was a motivation to one individual who is working on a master's degree. Having time off work to attend learning activities was motivational to another individual.

Several de-motivating factors were also mentioned. One complaint was the lack of interest on the part of laboratory management to allow the participants in professional learning activities to share their experiences in the department, or at least recognise the expertise being developed by the staff below the supervisory level.

Rewards or benefits of continuing professional education were seen as monetary increases associated with upward career mobility, gains in expertise, job knowledge and increase in job efficiency and confidence. The interview participants who had not reported any learning experiences on their initial survey forms indicated that the rewards of attending any type of continuing professional education did not outweigh the difficulty encountered in attending (i.e. finding a day babysitter, giving up their own time with their children). Since most seminars and workshops are offered between the hours of 9 and 5 during the day, employees on evening and night shifts are not paid for their time at the activity as are day shift employees. This practice was seen as unfair and a de-motivating or punishment factor to the employees on evening and night shifts.

Impact on professional development was quite a diverse list of factors and events. The promotion to program director was cited as the most important career event of the lab educational coordinator. Being 'thrown' into responsibility was the most challenging learning experience for this individual - a 'trial by fire' in an entirely new environment. Rejection and lack of respect seemed to have had major impact on another interviewee. He has been told by his superiors that he 'knows too much' and was actually discouraged by them from wasting time furthering a career in medical technology. He made some observations that I would like to repeat here:

> "Observation and conversations with other medical professionals from around the country have led me to a conclusion. The medical health industry wants and needs highly skilled and educated and motivated technicians and technocrats, but as of yet will not allow them to truly participate in the decision making process, does not pay them commensurate with their ability and doesn't treat these professionals with the respect and attitude that would be expected in other business sectors. All this leads up to a demotivated attitude toward the field and a motivating incentive to other types of endeavors. So long as thie field has to endure the traditional negativity of management, one can conclude that there may exist a competent staff, but it will be one lacking the more highly specialized skills that advanced technology dicatates. Those capable of these skills will go elsewhere where they will have a better environment to pursue careers."

Achieving daily increases in knowledge and maturity as a result of 'living' was a third participant's most influential factor. I thought of self-actualization several times while speaking to this person. She seems to work on a level quite near Maslow's ideal.

Starting a family had an understandable impact on my fourth and fifth interview participants. One was a former supervisor who chose to resign her position and work part time at the bench level on second shift when she started her family. She has neither time nor energy to pursue anything more than her 1 and 3½ year old children. A surprise was finding the same impact on a male parent. A series of events after the birth of his child resulted in the hospitalization of his wife and severe limitations on his ability to participate in any professional development. He did comment that other than this major personal event, his co-workers have had major impact on his continued learning by discussion and ideas generated by listening to and observing those around him.

There was general agreement on the effects of proficiency testing and/or manditory continuing education on medical technology. All the participants basically stated they felt these measures could accomplish some necessary 'house-cleaning.' Mandating continuing education would place the burden of cost on the hiring institution, including wages for the time spent at the activity.

It seems that a few consistent ideas come through in all the individual interviews. It seems the motivation to engage in any form of continuing professional education comes from the desire for respect, need for an increase in upward career mobility, the recognition by management of gains made, and the desire to maintain competence in an area where lives are at stake. These motivations are all tempered with the practicality of achieving these ends in the light of family committments and personal needs.

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